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The Antiquaries Journal

VOLUME XXXVIII

JULY-OCTOBER 1958

NUMBERS 3, 4

ANNIVERSARY ADDRESS

By SIR MORTIMER WHEELER, President

[Delivered 23rd April 1958]

FINANCE. That ill-omened word demands a sentence to itself at the beginning of this address. During the past year the claims of revenue in one form or another have hit the humanities, if not the sciences, more savagely than air-bombardment or inflation. The mechanized forces of rating-assessment have struck—not, it is astonishing to note, without some vulgar applause—at that single-minded repository of enlightenment, the London Library. It is to be presumed that this and other cases of the sort were in the mind of the Minister of Housing and Local Government when, on the 22nd of January 1958, he appointed a Committee to report upon the rating of premises in England and Wales 'occupied for purposes of a charitable nature and other similar purposes'. The action was a timely one, and we may await its outcome with such hope as uncertain faith and over-strained charity admit to our experience. At the same time, on a wider front, the Board of Inland Revenue has withheld the refund of income-tax on seven-year covenants to a whole host of cultural charities such as our Society, with consequences that must be nothing short of shattering. Under modern economic conditions the official decision, if confirmed, means the end or drastic diminution of much that we value, of much that we can do and should do if we are to contribute our mite to human understanding. It is not for me, here and now, to comment upon the mechanics of the law or the wisdom of the Board of Inland Revenue. I hope that that will be done in another place. Nor do I propose to anticipate the sort of retrenchments which our Treasurer and Council will be compelled to impose upon us in the face of an income reduced by more than £2,000 a year. But there are certain general observations which are appropriate to the present occasion.

Let me first recall in outline the history of this mournful business. In May 1957 the Court of Appeal upheld a ruling by Mr. Justice Vaisey that the National Book League, admittedly a charity within the legal definition, provided the amenities of a club in the form of a restaurant and a reading-room; and that therefore subscriptions paid under seven-year covenants could not be held to have been paid solely for the benefit of the charity as a charity, and were accordingly not eligible for income-tax refund. The Board of Inland Revenue promptly enlarged the terms of this judgement to cover a majority of learned or cultural societies, such as our own.

When this judgement and decision became known, I summoned in your name a conference of representatives of a number of the learned societies affected by it. They met in this room on the 4th of July last and heard from our Fellow and Honorary Solicitor, Lord Nathan, a clear exposition of the legal issues involved; and here let me interpolate the observation that our Society is already indebted to Lord Nathan for much time, trouble, and devoted interest in this matter. The conference decided that, to clarify the position, two test cases—those of our Society and of the British Academy—should be submitted to the Board with reasoned argument. Shortly afterwards Lord Nathan with our Treasurer, the Treasurer of the British Academy, and your President met the Chairman of the Board and arranged to do this forthwith.

A long period of hibernation ensued, broken only by faint stirrings in Somerset House. Not until the 14th of February of this year was the Board's review of the matter made known to us, and then only in the terse sentence that 'the Board are not satisfied on the evidence before them that the Society of Antiquaries is entitled to the relief [of income-tax] in question, and they are therefore unable to admit the

claim' under Section 447(1)(b) of the Income Tax Act, 1952.

Now I suppose that as tax-payers we should individually welcome this dusty answer. The Board of Inland Revenue is doing its stuff; it is husbanding the public purse. But let us mingle our personal rejoicing with a moment's reflection upon the consequences not merely to our venerable selves but to learned societies up and down the country, to many of which we are in some sense in loco parentis.

In the sequel, the major and immediate crux is the continuance of publication. The increasing cost of producing even a modest annual volume of transactions has for some years threatened our humanistic societies with one of two alternatives: insolvency or lingering frustration. Without adequate publication, sometimes of a rather elaborate kind, our serious contribution to knowledge utterly ceases. Without adequate publication there is of course no such thing as research. That is a truism, but this is a time, above all, for a recollection of basic values.

Our former President, Sir Alfred Clapham, had this problem in the front of his mind when, at the end of the last war, he and his colleagues instituted the Council for British Archaeology. It was our main theme when, in 1948, he and Sir Cyril Fox and I went to H.M. Treasury and secured the government grant upon which, to an appreciable extent, the Council's efficacy is founded; for in consequence, the Council is able to afford a very able if hard-pressed staff and every year to dispense something like £1,200 in subventions to local and national societies as an aid to

approved publication.

That was a beginning. It was the first occasion upon which Treasury resources had been allotted specifically to archaeological societies, if we exclude the traditional loan to our own Society of the apartments in which we have our being. The innovation was welcomed, but of course it scarcely touches the fringe of the crisis in which many of our societies now find ourselves. What, short of a successful appeal against the Board's decision—and that must be our first endeavour—what is now the answer? I have heard it said more than once that the scientific societies have discovered it in substantial Treasury aid. That is only partially true. Let me amplify this by glancing for a moment, in a neighbourly and not, I hope, unduly

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inquisitive way, at the situation in which some of our scientific counterparts do in fact find themselves in this matter.

Since 1895 the Government has granted certain funds to the Royal Society for the subvention of scientific publication, whether directly or by other societies approved by it. I am revealing no secret when I say that in 1954 the Royal Society thus received from the Treasury an allocation of £26,000 from which it made grants in aid of publication to the Royal Astronomical Society, the Linnaean Society, the Physical Society, the Yorkshire Geological Society, and nineteen other societies mostly centred in London. Individual grants varied from less than £100 to nearly £2,000, with an average of about £400, but it is interesting to note that a third of the total sum available to the Royal Society was not disbursed and was carried forward to 1955; presumably saturation-point had been reached within the limited range of scientific qualification. A further £1,000 was received by the Society from the Treasury in 1954 for library expenditure and was divided amongst four central institutions. Indeed, save in two instances, provincial scientific societies did not share in either of these grants-in-aid.

Now let us turn back to our own case and that of the numerous societies, central and provincial, which in some measure serve our discipline. In doing so it is well to remember that no analogy is exact and that, in particular, archaeology may fairly expect to receive a weightier return from the major local societies than can a highly evolved and complex natural science. But, even so, we do not emerge too badly from the comparison. Through the British Academy, acting as the humanistic counterpart of the Royal Society, the Council for British Archaeology receives, as I have reminded you, a substantial grant-in-aid from the Treasury, and is able to pass more than a third of that grant on to central and local societies, including our own, to help them with their printers' bills. The grant-in-aid could usefully be larger, and I have no doubt that under proper pressure it will increase beyond its present annual total of £3,500. But the weakness—or in another sense the strength—of the C.B.A. system is its virtual restriction to the United Kingdom. In this respect its field is vastly narrower than that of any of our scientific neighbours, and supplementary funds have to be, and are, sought from the Treasury and elsewhere for the publication of that very considerable body of important work which our British Schools of Archaeology, with great credit to themselves and their country, are now carrying out overseas. If we add these supplementary government funds to the C.B.A.'s grant-in-aid, the total is not incomparable with that allotted to the scientific societies. With this small comfort we need not rest content, but, remembering it, at least we may not nurse too hasty a grievance. Even in this age, science does not automatically sweep the board.

In considering the immediate sequel to the Board of Inland Revenue's catastrophic policy, I have stressed in general the high importance and increasing hazard of adequate publication; but, if I turn from the wider need to our Society's more domestic problems, I find there one factor—a unique factor—which is at least of equal magnitude. I refer to our library. Outside the British Museum, our library is, within its field, unapproached for range and quality anywhere in the United Kingdom, and it is in good working order, with useful subject and topographical

indexes and a small but knowledgeable staff. The re-shelving of its books on a classified-subject basis is a counsel of perfection to which, I hope, effect may be

given in the foreseeable future.

Here, let me repeat, is a unique possession, not merely of ourselves but of the nation, which has, indeed, all reasonable access to it without qualification of Fellowship. Whatsoever we do or do not do in the future, that library must be cherished and sustained. Even if by some grievous mischance or misgovernment we never again dig into the ground, if (heaven forfend) we never publish another word of active research, this passive vehicle must remain for all time in a condition sound enough to supply the needs of studious inquiry as no other instrument—even the

British Museum—can supply them with a comparable facility.

Books and papers, new and old, of these I have spoken. I have said something, too, of state-subvention for critically selected needs. But there is another facet of this matter, one more difficult to define and more subject to neglect or misconstruction. There are functions of our learned or semi-learned societies which cannot be translated into objective terms of scholarship or research and are difficult to measure therefore in the shape of a cash grant. Those many local societies of ours which rarely add materially to the sum total of knowledge may nevertheless contribute in a substantial measure to the well-being of our studies. In a spreading democracy such as ours, where patronage becomes less and less personal and more and more abstract and official, it is more necessary than ever before to enlarge that background-sympathy before which we specialists play our little parts: in other words, to enlarge our recipient and percipient audience. At the lowest, this audience is in one way and another paying the piper and has a right to some understanding of the tune. There are still too many cloistered minds who sniff at any form of journalistic or broadcast publicity in the serious and recondite matters which are our concern; or who use the designation 'amateur' as a term of denigration and scorn the polite jaunts and junketings of the Loamshire Field Club. Happily these most superior persons are, no less than the rest of us, subject to mortality and their number is decreasing. On the other side, I am glad to record that in recent years something like thirty or forty of our Fellows, including several of canonical age, have shyly exhibited themselves to happy millions through the medium of a modern machine. But, apart from this occasional extravagance, I would not like to leave the problem of our humanistic societies without some stress upon their less tangible services, for which, in lieu of the tax benefits that have now been snatched from them, they are unlikely to qualify for any compensating state aid. I mourn the loss which must be theirs—and, less directly, ours.

I have dwelt perhaps too long upon a Board of Inland Revenue which is so far from our health and the voice of our complaint. I do not propose to continue the mournful note with a chronicle of our dead, though our losses during the past twelve months are a sombre record. Of Fellows or former Fellows I will merely mention our Gold Medallist, Gordon Childe, whom I need not hesitate to name in measured terms as the foremost archaeologist of our age; O. G. S. Crawford, whose early distribution-maps, before the First World War, were the pioneers of a

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technique that is now a commonplace, and whose sure eye for new modes and ideas remained undimmed by his 71 years; and Sean Ó Ríordáin whose untimely death occurred on the eve of what would surely have been his greatest discovery; for it forestalled by a few months his entry into the great mound of Tara, probably the only intact tomb of its imposing kind yet discovered by modern science. The entrance to it, I hope now adequately safeguarded, was reached by Ó Ríordáin with his fatal illness already upon him, and we can only wish his successor, Professor Ruaidhri de Valera, son of the founder of Eire, all skill and success when the time comes to resume the work.

Of more domestic matter to us has been the addition of Queen Elizabeth the Queen Mother to our Royal Fellows, an event which we welcome warmly in the proper tradition of our ancient and royal Society. Before her, Queen Mary was for a quarter of a century upon our roll of Fellowship, and the King of Sweden, that experienced and practising archaeologist, has been of our number for a nearly equal period. This association with royalty is a great deal more than an archaic form. It is based in every case upon personal interest in our work and well-being, and I have no doubt whatsoever that, had these names been submitted on the usual blue form to the suffrage of our Fellows, even that mysterious misanthropist who, ballot after ballot so long as I can remember, has crept into this room on ballotnights to record his undiscriminatingly adverse vote with vindictive and (I have no doubt) senile glee—even he would have held his hand.

From time to time we are advisedly critical of ourselves, and my last Anniversary Address was devoted to a review of our present function in the world of learning. As a footnote to my commentary I am glad to add a word at first hand upon our present prestige outside our country. For a long time we have been aware of the affectionate esteem which has induced a group of our American Fellows to renew their link with us by an annual dinner in Boston, Massachusetts. In that singularly English environment, with its weatherboarded houses and its Georgian churches, this friendly act is as intelligible as it is touching. But farther afield, too, there are those who, as Honorary Fellows, take a properly flattering pride in their Fellowship. It has recently been my fate to travel widely in Pakistan, India, and Afghanistan, and in all three countries to be greeted by Honorary Fellows of our Society. One of these greetings had an accidental touch of drama in its setting. At the beginning of November, winter set in some two or three weeks before its time in the mountainous borders of Baluchistan and the jagged uplands of Afghanistan, and my plane-journey from Delhi to Kabul, the Afghan capital, across the misty barriers took three days instead of the scheduled six hours. Thanks to an uninhibited Afghan pilot who did not regard himself as bound by the normal rules of air-travel, we eventually landed on the grass-grown aerodrome of Kabul amidst snow-clad mountains of indescribable splendour, and I reported to our hospitable ambassador. My ultimate rendezvous was 200 miles away, in the centre of Afghanistan, where our Honorary Fellow, Daniel Schlumberger, as head of the French Archaeological Delegation to Afghanistan, was digging an important hilltop temple of the second century A.D. Thither we started out, the ambassador and

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I, in the dark pre-dawn with a Union Jack in front of us and an exceedingly knowledgeable military attaché behind. The country is wild and beautiful in the extreme, fantastically so under snow; the roads, on which a maximum normal speed of 15 miles an hour was, more often than not, curtailed by slush and ice, are roads only by courtesy. A pass 10,000 feet high and slippery as glass was merely one of the obstacles. A convoy of (obsolete) guns coming in from the Russian border with 'technicians' for the betterment of the Afghan army was a passing distraction. But the ambassador and his attaché were familiar with their Asia and we won through. Two days later Daniel Schlumberger, in a long white Turkoman coat, received us in the dusk and the snow, turning to me with the words 'Welcome, Mr. President'. I felt that our Society had indeed arrived.

That is as it should be. We as a Society represent and will continue to represent before the world, not merely this discipline or that, not merely one special interest or the other, but an attitude of mind which transcends these necessary particularities and has incidentally something of an ambassadorial function and prestige. We represent, as no other body can, the sum total of British humanistic understanding in matters of the material past, and are truly fortified in our mission by those two and a half centuries of academic existence in which it is sometimes pretended that we are unduly bogged down. As he slipped and wallowed after Dr. Schlumberger in a 'Ruth Draper' tour of his snow-bound site, your President was aware, not only of the weight of his own personal antiquity, but of that likewise of the venerable Society which Schlumberger's greeting had brought freshly to his mind. And, in the thought, he kicked the snow from his boots and followed with a lighter heart.

Now there is one more matter of which I would speak before we reach the climax of this occasion. A happily increasing regard for our national monuments, whether state-owned or sheltered by non-official bodies, has been accompanied, and very rightly accompanied, by an increasingly critical interest in methods of conservation. The arch-conservator is of course our Ministry of Works, and universal gratitude is due though not always extended to the Ministry's archaeologists, scientists, and architects whose work, by and large, is unsurpassed and rarely equalled. In saying that, I may appropriately recall, in passing, our debt and that of the whole world to the leadership of France in these matters more than a century ago. But, splendid though the achievement of our Ministry be nowadays in this complex business of conservation, we may take comfort in the reflection that it enjoys no carefree monopoly. 'The spirit of monopolists', proclaimed Gibbon, 'is narrow, lazy, and oppressive: their work is more costly and less productive than that of independent artists; and the new improvements so eagerly grasped by the competition of freedom are admitted with slow and sullen reluctance in those proud corporations, above the fear of a rival, and below the confession of an error. I have no doubt that research into the ample files of the Ancient Monuments Division of the Ministry of Works would discover that, on one occasion or another, disgruntled critics have in fact accused it of being narrow, lazy, oppressive, slow, sullen, and reluctant; but the Department has at least the compensating stimulus and corrective of competition. During the past few months those 'independent ingly

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artists', our friends of the National Trust, have been in stern but friendly conflict with the Ministry in the matter of the conservation of Hadrian's Wall, stretches of which belong to both. The National Trust has a liking for turf-coverings and no grouting. The Ministry will have none of this; turf holds water and hastens decay, and there is no substitute for good lime mortar with a dash of concrete to taste. I am glad to record that a summit conference between the two bodies produced agreement, if only to differ. But the real difficulty in this problem of conservation is that of laying down any theoretical policy whatsoever which can be mechanically applied. Conservation, as Sir Charles Peers used to say, is first and last a matter of good taste and sound judgement in the circumstances of each particular case; it cannot be codified in mass rules. The general policy of the Ministry, on taking over a monument, is to turn it into a battleship capable of withstanding the assaults of man and weather for an indefinite future. The principle of this is worthy enough, but its application often entails an appreciable measure of what must frankly be called rebuilding, disguise the fact as we may under the phrase 'the resetting of loose stones'. And this policy is one which may in practice easily be carried beyond the reasonable minimum which is the Department's intent. Better, in my view, an occasional loose stone than the pervasive modernization which is sometimes the insidious alternative.

The conservation of Stonehenge is another little matter which has lately caught the public eye. It is fair to premise this: that if one of the standing stones of Stonehenge fell tomorrow, the Ministry of Works would unquestionably be expected to set it up again. And that is precisely what the Ministry is doing at the present moment with two or three stones which fell a century and a half ago. Unhappy Ministry! 'Leave Stonehenge alone; all restoration is a lie!' shout the righteous. 'Put up all the fallen stones of Stonehenge while you are about it', urge the equally righteous. Here, as often, the wise answer is to take the middle path. If all the prostrate stones were set up once more in their original sockets, the great structure would still be a ruin, for the number of the surviving stones is incomplete. Moreover, modern restoration on any considerable scale is liable to display, with the best goodwill in the world, a suspicion of regimentation, a subtle hint of just too much bubble-level and plumb-bob. The broken monument, re-erected, would in one way or another present the uneasy aspect of a stark, ungraded ruin, and would lack, however intangibly, something of veracity and value. At least, such is my own fear; whether it be logical or not is of no particular interest since taste is necessarily subjective. On the other hand, the re-erection of the great trilithon which is the main subject of the present operation will go far to re-establish the central element of the monument without risk of artificiality. And the task is in the best possible hands.

Now at last I come to what I have in anticipation called the climax of the occasion. Dr. Claude Schaeffer has been an Honorary Fellow of our Society for sixteen years and our friend in peace and war for a far longer time. In a busy life of outstanding achievement, pride of place must be given to his epoch-making discoveries since 1929 on the site of the Neolithic and Bronze Age harbour-town at

Ras Shamra, the ancient Ugarit, on the coast of Syria opposite Cyprus, and to his subsidiary explorations on Cyprus itself. Ugarit in the second millennium B.C. was the meeting-place of influences, commercial and cultural, from Egypt, Mesopotamia, Asia Minor, and the Greek mainland; and to these influences must be added the *genius loci* of Ugarit itself, capital of a wealthy and creative kingdom. Its archives, of which extensive remains have been found, throw new light, amongst other things, upon the religion of the Canaanites at the time of the arrival of the Hebrews in Palestine, and so upon the background of the Old Testament. Historically and archaeologically, the handsome volumes in which Dr. Schaeffer's work is now steadily appearing are essential to our understanding of many aspects

of the ancient Near East during a formative age.

But that is only a part, if an important part, of our debt to Dr. Schaeffer. In the earlier twenties, as curator of the Prehistoric and Gallo-Roman Museum at his birthplace, Strasbourg, he had already as a young man laid us under a debt by his investigation and publication of Bronze Age, Early Iron Age, and Roman sites in Alsace. Like our own Sir Leonard Woolley and other Orientalists, he had very wisely learned something of his trade in his own country before venturing overseas; and these more domestic exploits of his are familiar to many for whom Ugarit is still a buried city. I need not follow Dr. Schaeffer through a succession of honorific and responsible posts, which included that of Conservateur des Musées de France. I prefer to recall some of my personal memories of him; for instance at the Athenaeum during the early years of the war when, as an honorary member, he used to appear becomingly and convincingly clad in the uniform of a Capitaine de Corvette, with the Cross of Lorraine upon his chest. But not only was he in this honourable guise an active member of Franco-British Intelligence. Oxford saw him not infrequently as a devoted Fellow of St. John's. Air-raid nights would find him in the basement of the British Museum, arguing with Sir John Forsdyke about the niceties of Mediterranean archaeology whilst the bombs fell about him. Nor yet is that all. Somehow or other during the war he managed in odd moments to prepare the fattest book on my study bookshelf, the Stratigraphie comparée et chronologie de l'Asie occidentale, a mine of classified material from which all those of us who concern ourselves with western Asia have constantly drawn.

Today he comes to us as Secretary-General of the Commission des Fouilles et Missions archéologiques, which controls and organizes the archaeological research carried out by twenty-five French sub-commissions working outside France. In his spare time he occupies a specially created Chair of Western Asiatic Archaeology at the Collège de France and continues miraculously to pursue an active programme of excavation in the Eastern Mediterranean. But, above all, he comes to us, let me repeat, as a valued friend and ally to whom we owe so much in so many ways. With him, I am delighted to see, comes his lady wife who once, I remember, in her charming little house beside the sea at Ras Shamra, served to me a chicken that had been gallantly presented to her that morning by an admitted but misunderstood murderer, whom her husband had befriended. I have no doubt that the murderer was no worse than the next man; certainly the chicken was a very much handsomer bird than is the ordinary run of Oriental chickens which, as Madame Schaeffer

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shrewdly remarked, are trop sportifs for satisfactory post-mortem service. This one had certainly been selected with great care from a neighbouring henroost by the grateful murderer as a first act of gratitude on his release from jail. Whether a memory so vivid but so mundane is appropriate to this solemn occasion I shall not pause to consider. More fitting, perhaps, is it to recall that Madame Schaeffer, herself the daughter of a distinguished archaeologist, cannot escape some real responsibility for her husband's great achievement; and we welcome her warmly to this room and at this moment when, by the authority and in the name of the Society of Antiquaries of London, I bestow our highest award, our Gold Medal, upon Dr. Claude Frédéric Armand Schaeffer.

THE EXCAVATION OF TREGULLAND BURROW TRENEGLOS PARISH, CORNWALL

By Paul Ashbee, F.S.A.

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The ruined and gutted barrow called Tregulland Burrow, when totally excavated, proved to have had a complex structure. Stake holes denoting withdrawn stakes, an infilled 'ritual' pit, a satellite grave containing a cremation and arrowheads, and most probably the central grave pit, were the features of the first phase of its construction. A cairn-ring, with a buttressing bank, the soil for which was dug from an encircling ditch, and its turf covering, comprised the second. A great slab bearing cup-marks and an 'eyebrow' motif, also other lesser cup-marked and ornamented slabs, were incorporated in cairn-ring and bank. Cup-marked stones recovered from the disturbed central area suggested the one-time existence of a stone-built grave incorporating such elements. After this second phase the barrow centre was open and arena-like, and a food vessel and a cremation were put in close by the cairn-ring. All was finally enveloped by material from the depths of the ditch. Poorly built walling or turves retained the final mound.

The site and its setting (fig. 1)

The barrow had been set just to the north of the highest point of a dominating eminence that rises to a height of 895 ft. The eminence is part of a spur of high land, demarcated approximately by the 800-ft. contour, which runs in a southeasterly direction from the northern fringes of Davidstow Moor, in itself a northern extension of the main massif of Bodmin Moor. To the north-west are the headwaters of the Ottery, which, together with the Tamar, form the eastern county boundary. Just to the north, another stream rises and flows to the Ottery, while to the east and south, respectively, the Kensey and the Inny have their sources.

It appears that the barrow, and the field in which it stood, were enclosed at the beginning of the century. For long the field was rated as rough pasture, being eventually cultivated during the 1939–45 War. An area to the north of the barrow is still moorland; Wilsey Down and its barrows have been shrouded in conifers by the Forestry Commission, while the remainder of the moorland has been turned by the plough.

The geological solid is the slatey rocks, of Devonian Age, called 'Killas' in Cornwall. Boulders of this material, and of vein-quartz, abound in the clayey soil which caps this formation.

'Tregulland Burrow' is the name by which all in the locality knew the barrow, a well-known landmark until its removal by excavation. It is not known whether the farm, about a mile to the south, gave its name to the barrow.

Tregulland Burrow had been mutilated, as its commanding site had been deemed suitable for a strongpoint in the 1939-45 War. An earlier unrecorded excoriation

¹ 6-inch O.S. Maps (Cornwall), XI, S.E.; Nat. Grid Ref. 220867.

had all but destroyed the central grave. It is possible that this central disturbance, and that of many other prominent barrows in the vicinity, was caused by medieval treasure-seeking, as a warrant was issued by Henry III to his brother the Earl of Cornwall, in 1237, authorizing the opening of Cornish barrows for this purpose. In 1955 the barrow appeared as a cratered, truncated, grass-and-bramble-clad mound.

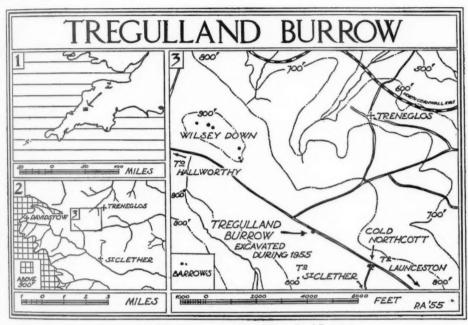


Fig. 1. Map showing location of Tregulland Burrow.

(Based on the Ordnance Map by permission of the Director-General.)

Total excavation by the quadrant method was undertaken for the Ministry of Works during the late summer of 1955, in advance of an arable land improvement scheme.²

THE BARROW STRUCTURE

The various features which comprised the complex structure are described below in their presumed chronological order.

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¹ Close Rolls, 1234-7, pp. 433, 434, note the medieval pottery from the disturbance.

² Sir Cyril and Lady Fox visited the excavation. Mr. John Hopkins assisted during the later stages. Thanks are due to Dr. I. W. Cornwall, Dr.

G. W. Dimbleby, Mr. G. F. Levy, and Dr. F. S. Wallis for their special reports. Mr. J. G. Hurst and Dr. M. W. Thompson are to be thanked not only for their visits but for administrative arrangements.

TREGULLAND BURROW

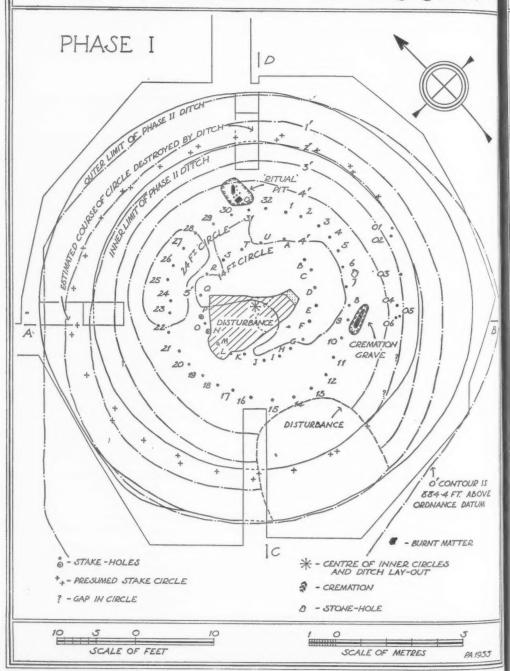


Fig. 2. Plan: first phase.

TREGULLAND . BURROW PHASE II FOOD-VESSEL O'CONTOUR IS 884.4 FT ABOVE ORDNANCE DATUM STONE-HOLE LIMITS OF TURF BANK GRAVE FILLING OVER OUTER GRAVE 10 CREMATIONS STAKE-HOLES COVERED BY THE DITCH CENTRE POINT PHASE II CAIRN-RING ARE NOT CUP-MARKED STONES SHOWN STAKE IMPRESSION IN PRIMARY SILT - STAKE-HOLES

Fig. 3. Plan: second phase.

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The buried soil (fig. 5)

The original soil surface beneath the barrow structure appeared everywhere as a stiff blue-grey clay, some 3 in. in thickness. Beneath this was a sandy soil, bright orange-brown in colour, which at a depth of about 15–18 in. from the buried surface passed into the dingy-grey rocky material of the 'Killas'.

The stake circles (figs. 2 and 3)

A primary feature of the barrow had been more or less concentric circles of 'stakes'; an inner circle of twenty, some 14 ft. in diameter, and another of thirty-two some 24 ft. in diameter. Stake holes, six in number, on the south-eastern periphery of the mound may well be the remains of another, slightly eccentric circle, presumably about 40 ft. in diameter, which had been destroyed by the later digging of the surrounding ditch. The evidence for the stake circles consisted of holes in the buried soil, vertical and, for the most part, with pointed profiles, or sometimes double, i.e. one within the other. All were sealed beneath the lowermost thrown-up layers of the barrow, or beneath the cairn-ring. Some had been plugged, possibly purposely, with clay from the buried soil, while others were filled at the top with material, derived, it would seem, from the superimposed barrow. Apart from this, all the 'holes' or 'pits' remained as open spaces which, apart from a dark brown staining, were devoid of filling. These empty holes, many of which were sealed by the cairn-ring, suggest that the two structures could not have co-existed.

The central grave or pit

Clay with pieces of slate and quartz comprised what remained of the filling of a rectilinear pit, one end of which was undisturbed. Cup-marked stones, found amongst the stone rubble infilling the disturbance, hint at a stone-built, -covered, or -lined grave.

The ? ritual pit (fig. 4, 1)

This consisted of a shallow rectilinear pit above which the turf or topsoil had been replaced by the barrow architects. Indeed it was scarcely detectable, except as a slight sagging of the buried surface, as there had been a marked re-knitting and consolidation of the replaced turf or topsoil, previous to the erection of the barrow. The bottom of the pit showed signs of reddening and sintering, suggesting fires in situ, while the vivid orange-brown infilling sealed patches of black organic material, suggesting that infilling had quenched a burning fire. To the filling of this 'ritual' pit, large numbers of splintered fragments of white vein-quartz, and one slatey slab, had been added.

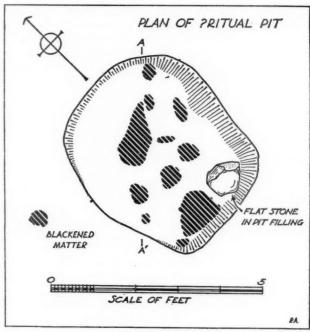
The satellite cremation grave (fig. 4, 2 and 3)

Above this, the buried soil surface material had been carefully replaced by the barrow architects, it being, from this level, detectable only as an elongated surface sag, filled with superincumbent material. Below this was compact ochreous clay, which, from its tight composition, may well have been tamped. Between the base

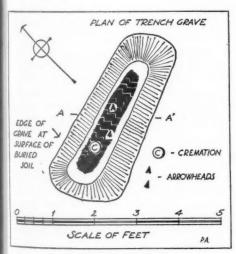
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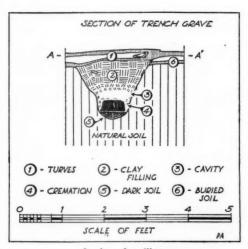
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2. Plan of satellite grave.



3. Section of satellite grave.

Fig. 4.

of this material, and extending the whole length of the grave was a soil-free space, although some clay had washed down on to the cremation. In the grave were two arrowheads, one hollow-based, the other barbed and tanged. Beneath the cremation was a dry, friable, granular brown earth which contained pieces of the cremation. There were no signs of a pit lining, other than the brown soil.

? Stone hole (figs. 2 and 3)

An irregular cavity on the south-eastern side of the cairn-ring had been packed with charcoal-flecked ochreous clay. The blue-grey clay of the buried soil covered this feature, there being no signs on its surface of the existence of this pit.

The cairn-ring and retaining bank (figs. 3 and 5)

The outer perimeter of the cairn-ring (pl. xviii) coincided exactly with the 24-ft. stake circle, being thus roughly circular, while the inside edges corresponded roughly to, covered, or stood clear of the 14-ft. stake circle, making the inside near rectilinear. On the south side there was a slight gap, while on each side of this gap the construction was slight. Construction on the south-western side both interior and exterior was merely by stones heaped around a core of thrust blocks. However, on the north-western side, the internal face consisted of carefully constructed walling, rising, in places, to a height of nearly 3 ft. above the ancient surface. From where this walling ended, on the northern side of the cairn-ring, to the south-eastern side, the internal face was formed by sub-megalithic blocks, their sizes decreasing from north to south. Set approximately in the middle of these was a great slate slab (pl. xx), cup-marked and adorned with a device discussed below (p. 189). It had been trigged so that it sloped inwards towards the centre of the barrow. Banked on the outside against these great blocks, and against the walling, were more smaller stones and cobbles, the material used being slate pieces and quartz lumps. Embodied in the banking stones of the cairn-ring (fig. 5) were numbers of cup-marked slate slabs, while surmounting the cairn-ring, in approximately the centre of the walling, was a cup-marked block of coarse sandstone. It had, apparently, been brought to the site from a distance. Piled against the outside banking stones of the cairn-ring, thus forming an all-round buttress, was compact ochreous clay, dark loam, or clay and slate fragments (fig. 5). The outside stones were, in many cases, supported by this material. These materials were, it would seem, derived from the ditch.

Turf structure (figs. 3 and 5)

Turf, presumably derived from the ditch, had been used to complete the cairn-ring/soil-bank buttressing stage of the barrow's construction. Around the top of the cairn-ring turves had been set, in some places before the soil-bank had been completed, and in others after its completion. Where the cairn-ring was less massive, this turf banking was complementarily more massive, especially at the slightest part of the ring by the satellite trench grave. This turf stacking extended as a broad lobe above this grave to the extremities of the barrow. Some turves had been used to define the outer periphery of the barrow on the western side.

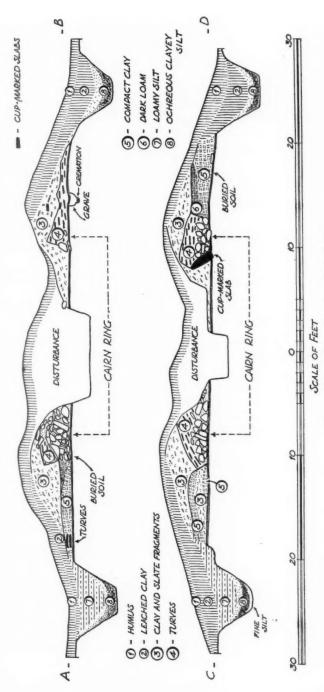


Fig. 5. Diametric sections through the barrow.

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The final envelope (fig. 5)

Grey clay and small slate fragments, all derived from the depths of the ditch, covered soil-bank, turf-cover, and cairn-ring, and, where undisturbed, filled the area within the cairn-ring. An elaborately cup-marked and channelled rectangular slab was recovered from this material, where it had been incorporated almost exactly above the satellite cremation grave. Another small cup-marked slab was recovered from this layer in the western quadrant.

The food vessel (p. 184), found inverted and shattered, and the cremation, appear to have been set in position on the ancient surface before the central area was infilled. A number of widely scattered pieces of cremated bone were recovered

from the envelope material.

The kerb (figs. 3 and 5)

Two parts remained of a poorly built kerb of slab walling. Fallen stones, in the ditch and on its inner lip, testify to the one-time existence of walling all round the barrow except on the western side where turf had been used.

The ditch (figs. 3 and 5)

The digging of the ditch could only have proceeded side-by-side with the construction of the cairn-ring and the soil-bank, and the turf capping, as it would appear that it provided the materials for the bank and capping and for the final envelope. Silting from the mound had rendered the ditch invisible from surface indications. It was cut into the rocky subsoil. The primary silt was an ochreous clay washed out from the tail of the retaining bank. It contained stone rubble fallen from the outer retaining walling. Above this was loamy or deeply leached material which contained ochreous and grey clays, and which was covered with a deep humus. A long regular cavity, 3 ft. long and c. 3 in. in diameter, was found in the lower silt of the ditch (fig. 3) which appears to have been the negative impression of a stake or post which had lain in the ditch during the accumulation of the silt.

Ancient environment

Evidence of local contemporary agriculture was found (cf. Appendix II for pollen analyses). Similar evidence was recovered in a Yorkshire barrow.¹

Interpretation

The monument was a retained bowl-barrow, narrow bermed and ditched. The nature of the cairn-ring, the buttressing soil-bank, and the use of turf to cap the former, when considered with the final envelope which had been dug from the depths of the ditch, suggest that the central area was open and arena-like, presumably until the completion of the rites pertaining to the destroyed central burial in it. The rectilinear pit appears to have been used for purposes that can be only described as 'ritual'. The small irregular clay and charcoal packed pit may denote

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Tregulland Burrow: The excavated cairn-ring

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the spot from which an awkward stone was removed during the initial clearance of the site. The ditch formed an almost perfect circle and it was possible to locate a central point from which it had been set out. When the rather irregular form of the inner stake circles, and the slight eccentricity of the presumed outer circle, are considered, against this precision of the ditch form the reason for their lack of symmetry is not clear. However, the close coincidence of the stake circles with the cairn-ring and ditch suggest setting-out practices. The character of many of the stake holes suggests that, whilst the majority had been driven, where localized obdurate spots were met with, some had been dug. It would seem likely that the stakes were withdrawn, perhaps when the cairn-ring was built. In general, the barrow can be seen as the result of careful and deliberate planning over a considerable period of time, and as a complex ritual structure, as the 'ritual' pit and satellite cremation grave suggest.

Comparative material

The stake circles. The possibly triple stake circles beneath the barrow resemble those found by Sir Cyril Fox beneath the sheeplays 293' barrow, the only closely comparable British example.² There a loamy soil-enveloped turf-stack covered four fairly widely set concentric circles. In England, stake holes beneath a barrow were recognized initially by Mortimer, at Calais Wold,3 although they had been recorded, but not recognized, at an earlier date beneath a bell-barrow at Beedon in Berkshire.4 In Holland, they have been studied by Van Giffen,5 whilst recently a classification of the Dutch material has been undertaken by Glasbergen.⁶ In England, Case7 has listed the published examples and arranged them, including seemingly allied 'henges', in chronological sequence. They are both peripheral and internal.

There is little to be gained by forcing the available English material into a classification devised for the post and stake-ring barrows of the sandy heaths of Holland; it falls into the following readily definable categories, which, in some ways, equate with the Dutch series:

A. I. Single post or stake circles, widely spaced (Beedon, Bleasdale (inner), Chippenham (inner), Poole I, Snailwell).

2. Single post or stake circles, closely spaced (Amesbury G.61, Caebetin, Canford Heath, Davidstow, Ludford Magna, Sheeplays 279', Sixwells 267', Sixwells 271', Snail Down XV, Talbenny).

B. 1. Widely spaced posts in a palisade trench (Crichel Down 2).

2. Closely spaced posts in a palisade trench (Letterston I, II; Bleasdale (outer)).

C. I. Widely set concentric circles (Arreton Down, Bleasdale, Chippenham B.5, Pant y Dulath, Sheeplays 293', Tregulland Burrow).

2. Closely set concentric circles (Chippenham (outer), Calais Wold).

¹ Measured drawings were made of all, and are filed for record.

² Antiq. Journ. xxi, 98-114. ³ Forty Years (1905), pp. 153-6.

⁴ Arch. Journ. vii, 66.

⁵ Die Bauart der Einzelgräber, Mannusbibl, Leipzig (1930); P.P.S. iv, 258-71.

^{6 &#}x27;Barrow Excavations in the Eight Beatitudes',

Palaeohistoria (1954), ii, iii.

⁷ P.P.S. xviii, 153.

Even from accumulating evidence it is difficult to detect a precise function, Structures, ritual² and otherwise,³ have been suggested. Where they coincide with permanent features, such as stone kerbs or cairn-rings, they may well have served as a setting-out medium during procedures which lasted over a considerable period

The ritual pit. These so-called ritual pits have a wide range in space and time, The English evidence has recently been discussed by Glasbergen.4

The 'satellite' grave. Of interest in this respect, as resembling the general form, is a narrow elongated slot or grave of the Beaker phase beneath the Talbenny barrow,5 and Pit No. 3, which contained a food vessel, beneath the Quernhow foodvessel barrow in Yorkshire.6

The cairn-ring and soil-bank. In the south-west, the only structures which at all closely resemble the soil-banked, internally faced cairn-ring of Tregulland Burrow, are Carn Gluze⁷ and Pond Cairn, although concealed kerbs or walls, whose function was retention, are not unknown. A penannular ring of cobbles was a feature of the first phase beneath the Quernhow Food-Vessel barrow. The writer of this report, 10 quoting Professor Childe, notes that concealed structures, guarding burials, are widely distributed throughout the Food-Vessel province.¹¹ In principle, the embanked cairn-ring is implicit in the 'Great Stone Circle' (B) in Grange Townland in Ireland.12 It will be remembered that a not dissimilar site to the Grange Townland Circle is in Wales, 13 just across the Bristol Channel in Camarthenshire. Recently a site excavated in Northern Ireland¹⁴ has shown how an embanked stone cairn-rectangle surrounded a long cist.

THE RELICS

Pottery (fig. 6)

Food vessel from the cairn-ring interior. Of coarse pale buff ware, which contains quantities of grit presumably of local origin. The exterior surface has been smoothed but there is no decoration. There is a shallow cavetto beneath the squared, slightly everted rim. A similar food vessel, of Abercromby Type 3, has been recovered from a barrow at Cataclews, Harlyn Bay, 15 where it was accompanied by a battle axe. The Tregulland and Cataclews food vessels stand apart from the neighbouring Cornish series. 16

- ¹ Extra to Case's list: Davidstow, Cornwall, Arch. Newsletter, 2, No. 7, p. 110: Ludford Magna, Lincolnshire, Antiq. Journ. xxviii, 27; Snail Down (site xv), Wiltshire, W.A.M. lvi, 144 (interim); Amesbury G61, Wiltshire, M.O.W. 1956; Arreton Down, Isle of Wight, M.O.W. 1956; Pant y Dulath, P. Hayes to C. B. A., 1958.

 - ² Antiq. Journ. xxi, 122. ³ Arch. Journ. xxvi, 193-222.
 - 4 Eight Beatitudes (pt. ii), pp. 150-1.
 - 5 Arch. Journ. xcix, 7.
 - 6 Antiq. Journ. xxxi, 1-24.
 - 7 Hencken, Arch. Corn. and Scilly, p. 41, fig. 13.
 - 8 Archaeologia, lxxxvii, 142-66.

9 e.g. Wick Barrow, P.S.A.N.S. liv, 1-77.

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- 10 Antiq. Journ. xxxi, 23.
- 11 P.C.B.I., p. 128.
- 12 P.R.I.A. liv, 37-74.
- 13 Bull. Board of Celtic Studies, ix (1939), 373.
- 14 Collins and Waterman, Millin Bay, A late Neolithic Cairn in Co. Down.
- 15 Antiq. Journ. i, 292; Hencken, Arch. Corn.
- and Scilly, p. 73, fig. 20, A.B.

 16 Arch. Journl. ci, 38-40, a variant of Abercromby's Type 2. Note also Fargo Plantation, W.A.M. xlviii, 363; Beaulieu, P.P.S. ix, 12, fig. 8, 1, 4; Simondston, Archaeologia, lxxxvii, pl. xLvi, 1, 2.

An undecorated sherd of buff ware, with a half-baked core containing fine quartz, was found behind the faced walling; and a basal sherd and two plain sherds occurred in the central disturbance.

In addition, nine sherds of late medieval pottery were recovered from the central disturbance. Of these, three were from a bowl of reddish ware with a buff internal glaze, and six were of reddish-brown unglazed ware. Mr. G. C. Dunning, F.S.A., kindly examined these sherds and dated them as probably of the fifteenth to sixteenth centuries.



Fig. 6. Food vessel from inside the cairn-ring (1).

Arrowheads (fig. 7)

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the calcined bones of the cremation in the satellite grave (fig. 4). The barbs are short and disproportionate, whilst the tang, once square-ended, has lost one corner. Of grey colour, it has a high gloss which, with a thermal fracture of a surface piece near where the tang joins the body, suggests exposure to fire. 'Short barbed' arrowheads appear to stand, as a form, apart from those which have the barbs almost in line with the tang.¹ When R. A. Smith² wrote in 1926 he could only illustrate, from the south, two well-associated 'short-barbed' arrowheads, one with beaker, bracer, dagger, and pin, from Roundway,³ the other with a near ogival dagger from Aldbourne,⁴ both in Wiltshire. There seems little doubt that a search amongst appropriate material would produce other examples.

2. A hollow-based flint arrowhead found with no. I above. Of very regular outline, the edges were finished to give a serrated rippling effect. The barbs are approximately square-ended, not so definitely finished as the sides, and the base hollow is even with a neat medial edge. Off-white in colour, with brown iron-staining, it has two thermal fractures which suggest exposure to fire.

Hollow-based arrowheads are extremely rare in southern England; a search of the literature has not revealed a single directly comparable example. Their general form and workmanship, however, do suggest a relationship with the series of finely finished (so-called 'Breton') arrowheads (fig. 8), chiefly from the Wessex area (cf. Appendix V). These are for the most part square-barbed and regular of form, and are usually of superb workmanship. They are, nevertheless, not all precisely similar to the Breton forms, as Grimes⁵ observed when describing those from Breach Farm in South Wales. Furthermore, in other parts of the country,⁶ and even in Scotland,⁷ quite closely comparable material is available.

It is, however, in Brittany and Ireland, and not in southern England apart from a few rather rough specimens, 8 that arrowheads closely resembling the Tregulland

¹ Archaeologia, lxxvi, 94.

² Ibid., pp. 81-106.

³ Aber., B.A.P., p. 21; Archaeologia, xliii, fig. 120,

^{154;} W.A.M. iii, 1856.

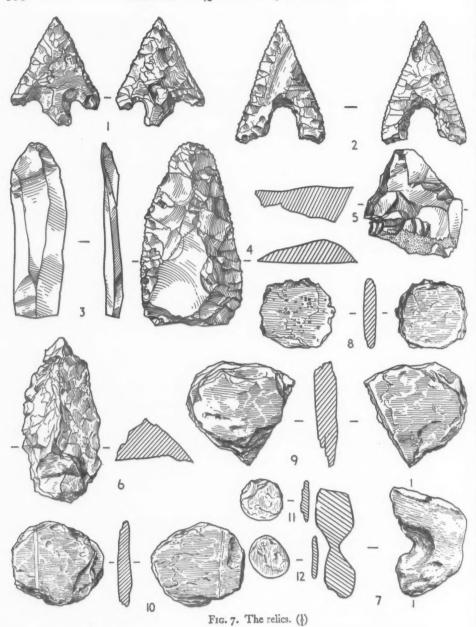
* Archaeologia, lii, 48, no. cclxxvii.

⁵ P.P.S. iv, 119.

⁶ B.M., B. Age Guide (1920), p. 88, fig. 87.

⁷ Sturge Coll. (Britain), pl. x, 14.

⁸ Curwen, Arch. Sussex, fig. 34, 21.



hollow-based example are to be found. The arrowheads frequently found in considerable numbers in the Breton 'dagger' graves are markedly regular as a series, and have square barbs, and, in contrast to the British 'Breton' forms, often have pointed tangs.¹ They are generally tanged, but square-barbed hollow-based arrowheads, which stand in complete contrast to the Iberian² pointed-barbed hollow-based arrowheads, do occur.³ The Irish hollow-based arrowheads are from

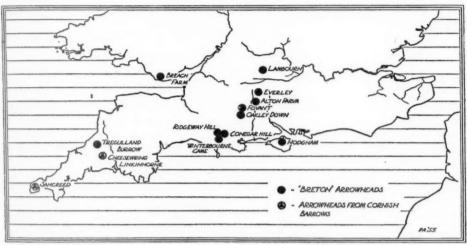


Fig. 8. Distribution map of 'Breton' arrowheads and arrowheads from Cornish barrows.

the north, and are, unfortunately, surface finds. R. A. Smith⁴ illustrates two examples quite close in form to the Tregulland example, while two more, with diminutive tangs, seem related.⁵ Two finds of arrowheads from Cornish barrows (cf. Appendix IV) show that the deposition of a number of arrowheads, as in the Breton 'dagger' graves, was a rite not unknown in Cornwall.

Flints

3. A flint blade of iron-stained grey-white colour with signs of use on the edges. From the turves above the cairn-ring.

4. A plano-convex lustrous black flint knife with a square bulbar end and obtusely trimmed point. From the disturbed central area. The class to which it appears to belong is Clark's second type. These knives are usually found with food vessels, although they were associated with 'A' or 'Long Necked' beakers at

¹ Cat. Mus. Arch. Soc. Pol. du Morbihan, 70,

² Childe, *Dawn* (1947), p. 264, fig. 125. Hollow based arrowheads from Shaft Grave IV, have pointed barbs. Karo, Schachtgraber, Taf. CI.

³ P.P.S. (1938), iv, 66, fig. 5.

^{*} Sturge Coll. (Britain), pl. x1, r, t. See also Antiq. Journ. xxxvi, 30.

⁵ Sturge Coll. (Britain), pl. x1, u, r.

⁶ Antiq. Journ. xii, 158-62.

Gorsey Bigbury,¹ and have been noted from Secondary Neolithic contexts.² A not dissimilar knife was that associated with the food vessels found beneath the Simondston cairn.³

5. A flake of dark grey flint with some cortex remaining. From the topsoil on the eastern skirt of the mound.

Quartz and sandstone

6. A white quartz flake of hog-backed form with one edge boldly trimmed. From the back of the soil-bank in the eastern quadrant.

7. A piece of broken sandstone rock with half of an hour-glass perforation. From the rubble of the filling of the ditch in the eastern quadrant.

Slate discs

8-12. Five slate discs. No. 8 has natural pitting on one face, and has been badly chipped, the percussion scars being clearly visible. It may be an unfinished 'rough-out'. From the base of the soil-bank in the eastern quadrant. No. 9 is thick and partially finished with traces of working from alternate sides. From the same area as No. 8. No. 10 was of slatey rock with quartz-veining with traces of working from alternate sides. From the rubble of the ditch filling on the eastern side. No. 11 was formed by edge trimming. Of brownish-white colour, it had probably been burnt. Unstratified. No. 12 was oval with polished edges, and may be natural, whilst the edge trimming of the others suggests that they are artifacts. Closely resembling these slate discs is a series from the Severn–Cotswold chambered tomb Ty-Isaf,4 seven of the ten found there being in the material of the barrow, and the other three in the chambers. Similar discs have been found in a number of Clyde-Carlingford chambered tombs. Stone discs, termed pot-lids, ranging from 2 in. to 24 in. in diameter were found at Skara Brae.6 The smaller pot-lids would be indistinguishable from our discs. A stone disc, in St. Brieuc Museum, is from the allée couverte of Champ-Grosset, Côtes du Nord, Brittany.7 Recently one has come to light from a chamberless 'Hünenbett' in North Germany,8 while a disc cut from a potsherd, and pottery discs, have been found in a Funnel-Beaker settlement excavated by Steensberg⁹ at Store Valby, in Denmark.

The Tregulland discs, from a Bronze Age barrow, call to mind also the bonemounted stone discs from the Shaft Graves.¹⁰ Indeed, as the aggrandisement of native workmanship appears to have been a feature of Wessex cultures, the renowned gold-bound amber discs should also be considered in this context.

Greenstone

A chip from a large block of greenstone was found in the southern quadrant of

- 1 P.U.B.S.S. v, 3; vi, 198.
- ² P.P.S. ii, 204; B.M. Stone Age Guide (1926),
- 3 Archaeologia, lxxxvii, pl. xLVII, I.
 - 4 P.P.S. v, 132, fig. 3.
 - 5 Piggott, Neo. Cult., p. 176.
- 6 Childe, Skara Brae, pp. 133-4.

- 7 P.P.S. v, 133.
- 8 Germania, xxxi, 233-4.
- 9 Aarboger, 1954, p. 134, fig. 15, c, p. 182,

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- 10 Karo, Schachtgräber, Teil I, 154, Abb. 73,
 - 892.

the barrow in layer 3. As this rock does not occur naturally in the immediate locality, it is possible that the fragment was deliberately and not accidentally incorporated in the barrow. If this is the case, it is reminiscent not only of the fairly frequent occurrence of broken pieces of tools of fine-grained rocks in barrows, I but also, alas, of the none too precise records of the discovery of chips of blue stone in barrows in the Stonehenge region.² Dr. F. S. Wallis writes of this fragment:

The greenstone is a coarse-grained rock with large crystals. In thin section the rock is seen to be composed of a background of decomposed felspar containing large ophitic and ragged crystals of green hornblende representing original augite. A certain amount of ilmenite converted to leucoxene and several large crystals of epidote and zoisite are present. Although it is not possible to pinpoint this rock, it is certainly a greenstone and very similar to the several outcrops of that rock in the Launceston area. We have no record of this rock occurring as an axe.

The Cup-marked and Ornamented Stones

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1-2. A hog-backed outlined slate slab (pl. xx, a, b). The bottom has a straight worked edge which suggests that the form was deliberate. On the inner face3 (pl. xx, b) are four close-set cup-marks, and an 'eyebrow' device which has been made around a natural flaw, whilst the outer half has been formed by pecking and bashing to remove an appropriate amount of the laminated slate structure to form a depression. On the outer face (pl. xx, a) there are four widely set cup-marks, one being connected by a channel to the edge of the slab. The position in which this slab was found is shown in fig. 3.

3-4. A roughly rectangular slate slab. The upper face bears two cup-marks, one much smaller than the other, together with one abortive cup-mark, the lower a single cup-mark. Four perforations had been used to remove this slab from a parent block, the halves of these perforations gracing the upper edge. The slab was incorporated in the upper part of the cairn-ring material stacked against the largest of the sub-megalithic blocks of the cairn-ring (fig. 3).

5. This slab is hog-backed in outline, resembling No. 1 above in general form. On the upper face, at a right angle to the straight bottom edge, a channel had been produced by pecking, the marks of a pointed instrument being clearly discernible at the bottom of the channel. This channel extends almost from edge to edge of the slab, being narrow at the bottom and then expanding, being thus wider and then gradually tapering. Were it not asymmetrical it could be considered as a dagger representation.

6. A small block of roughly pentagonal outline, one side being irregular. The device it bears has been made by pecking an outline and removing the intervening laminated slatey rock. Found at the base of the cairn-ring on the south side.

7. A weathered pillow-like lump of a coarse sandstone-like rock. The plane face bears at least seven small 'cup-marks'. On other sides there are more weathered

¹ P.P.S. vii, 50; xiii, 47; xvii, 99.

² Antiq. Journ. xii, 17. 3 'Inner' and 'outer' faces or sides refer to the relationship of the stones to the barrow centre, viz.

the 'inner' side of the great slab from the eastern interior of the cairn-ring bore the 'eyebrow' motif. 'Upper' and 'lower' indicate the side found uppermost or lowermost in the barrow.

THE A

and uncertain marks which may well be natural. It was found surmounting, in a central position, the faced walling on the western side of the cairn-ring (fig. 3). Dr. F. S. Wallis reports that: 'This is evidently a sandstone rock with a large amount of quartz. This is a very generalized rock and I am afraid it is not possible to tie it down to any particular part of Cornwall. The rock is much weathered and, judging from the print, I should say that the pits are entirely natural. Such a rock would hardly contain fossils and thus the pits could not have an organic origin.'

8. A roughly rectangular slate slab with opposing 'cup-marks' broken through before complete perforation (pl. xix, c). In addition there is a single cup-mark on the upper edge. It was in the banked stones on the western side of the cairn-ring.

From the soil-bank

1. An even, rectangular slab (pl. xix, b) bearing a group of three cup-marks in one corner, and single cup-marks in two other corners. From the outer cup-marks of the group run two channels. A channel runs from one of the solitary corner cup-marks. It was found, cup-marks and channels uppermost, almost exactly above the satellite cremation trench-grave (figs. 3 and 5).

2. A roughly triangular slab, bearing on its upper face a single centrally set cup-mark. Found by the cairn-ring in the eastern quadrant.

3. A small slab, of pentagonal outline, bearing a single shallow cup-mark. Found by the cairn-ring in the eastern side.

4. A thin U-shaped slab which has been battered into this shape by edge chipping. A concavity has been made along the upper edge.

From the ditch infilling

5. A tough, quartz-veined slab with a shallow battered cup-mark. From the western side of the barrow (fig. 3).

6. A small, tough, even, rectangular piece of slate, bearing an abortive cup-mark. From the western side of the barrow (fig. 3).

7. A thin piece of slate bearing a small cup-mark set at a point where laminae of slate have left the piece. From the eastern side of the barrow (fig. 3).

Unstratified

All the 'unstratified' cup-marked slabs recovered from the central disturbances, both recent and earlier, may well be derived from the destruction of the central grave arrangements.

8. A thick lozenge-outlined slab (pl. xix, a) bearing one large cup-mark, and one smaller, set side-by-side.

9. A roughly square-outlined slab (pl. xix, d) with two cup-marks of even size set across one diagonal. One cup-mark has a smaller one close by it.

10-11. Irregular pieces of thin slate, bearing traces of perforations on their edges, one bearing cup-marks.

12. A roughly triangular slab bearing an? unfinished cup-mark.

6 (3)



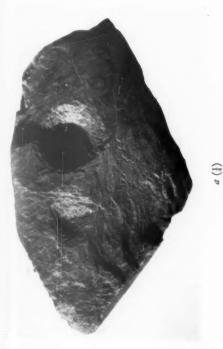






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a. Tregulland Burrow. The great slate slab: outer face



b. Tregulland Burrow. The great slate slab: inner face

13. An even hexagonal slab that appears to have been, by edge trimming, worked into this form.

Cup-marked stones are generally found in barrows (fig. 9) either on (i) cist covers; (ii) on stones of walls, kerbs, or cairn-rings; (iii) on stones built into or over cists and graves; or (iv) on stones incorporated into barrow material.

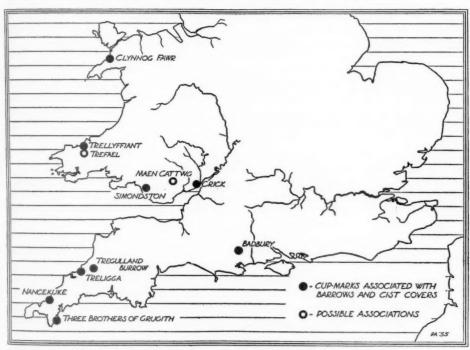


Fig. 9. Distribution map of cup-marks associated with barrows and cist covers.

(i) The use of the great cup-marked slate slab, which had been centrally set in the line of sub-megalithic 'grounders' on the inside of the cairn-ring on the north-eastern side, recalls the incorporation of the two cup-marked slabs near the eastern side of the kerb of the Crick barrow. Cup-marks occurred, together with representations of daggers and axes, on a stone of the kerb-ring of the Badbury barrow.

(ii) Cup-marked stones on walls, kerbs, or cairn-rings are of relatively rare occurrence. Dr. Savory,³ when describing the Crick barrow, could only point for comparative purposes, to cup-marks on stones of 'Recumbent Stone Circles' in Scotland.⁴ Of interest in this context is a slate slab with three cup-marks, reputed to be from the 'retaining wall' of a barrow excavated at Treligga, near Delabole, in

¹ Arch. Camb. (1940), pp. 169-91.

² Antiq. Journ. xix, 294.

³ Op. cit.

⁴ The Prehistory of Scotland, p. 173; Keiller, Megalithic Monuments of North East Scotland (1934).

1941, and now in Truro Museum, while a large stone with cup-markings at the base was a feature of the Bronze Age Hut excavated in 1948-9 by the late Mr. B. H. St. J. O'Neil at English Island Carn, St. Martin's, Isles of Scilly.

(iii) A comparable structure to that suggested by the slabs of slate, some cupmarked, from the central disturbance of the Tregulland Burrow, is that beneath the Simondston Cairn¹ near Bridgend in South Wales. The slab-built cist, besides incorporating a cup-marked slab, contained two food vessels comparable with the Cornish series.² On the other hand, the cup-marked stones might have been heaped above the grave as was found in a barrow at Brotton in Yorkshire.³

(iv) For cup-marked stones incorporated in cairn-ring and barrow body, there are records of a number of similar cases. In the Food-Vessel Cairn of Period III of the composite henge monument on Cairnpapple Hill4 in West Lothian, Scotland, Professor Piggott met with cup-marked stones scattered in the cairn material. He drew attention to similar phenomena in the material of the Breton 'dagger-grave' cairn of Cruguel in the Morbihan.⁵ This seems to be of especial significance in view of the 'Breton' affinities of one of the Tregulland arrowheads (cf. p. 185).

In Ireland, 'enriched stones', loose within the material of the cairn were a feature of the Late Neolithic Cairn at Millin Bay, Northern Ireland, noted above.

In the south-west during 1941, digging in the Nancekuke barrow at Portreath, near Redruth⁶ by C. K. Andrew disclosed a cup-marked and perforated slate slab. One of the Tregulland slabs had been perforated by means of opposing cup-marks, a half only being incorporated in the cairn-ring. Elsewhere in England, in Derbyshire, Northumberland, and Yorkshire, Bateman⁷ and Greenwell⁸ appear to have met with cup-marked stones incorporated in the mound material of a number of the many barrows dug by them during the nineteenth century. Cup-marks on cist covers appear to be a common form of ornamentation; such cist covers often cover food-vessel burials. Cup-markings may also adorn the cover of the great, free-standing cist known as the 'Three Brothers of Grugith' in St. Keverne parish. Certain 'megalithic' sites in Wales¹¹ also appear to be great cists upon the covers of which cup-markings occur.

For the possible 'eyebrow' device, on the interior face of the Great Slate slab, there are in England but two certain examples with which comparisons can be made. The first is the motif on the renowned Folkton Drums, ¹² the second on a small vessel from the Black Burgh barrow¹³ in Sussex. A further 'eyebrow' device may be on a cup-marked stone on Middleton Moor, in Yorkshire. ¹⁴ These 'eyebrow' motifs occur frequently in the Boyne Culture, ¹⁵ where, as on the Folkton Drums, 'eye-

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¹ Archaeologia, lxxxvii, 131-4, pl. XLII, 2.

² Arch. Journ. ci, 17-49; cvii, 44-65.

³ Y.A.J. xxiv, 263.

⁴ P.S.A.S. lxxxii, 68-123.

⁵ Rev. Arch. (1890), 304; P.P.S. iv (1938),

⁶ Antiq. Journ. xxviii, 26.

⁷ Ten Years, pp. 172, 177.

⁸ B.B. 342 and G. CXXIX, G. CXXXI, G. CCXX; Archaeologia, lii, 45.

⁹ e.g. Coilsfield, &c.

¹⁰ Hencken, op. cit., p. 77.

¹¹ Wheeler, Prehistoric and Roman Wales, p. 82; Daniel, Chamber Tombs, pp. 192, 198.

¹² Archaeologia, lii, 14.

¹³ J.R.A.I. vi (1877), 279-86; Curwen, Arch. Sussex (1954), pl. xII, 4.

¹⁴ Cowling, Rombalds Way (1946), 100, fig. 46.

¹⁵ Piggott, Neolithic Cultures, pp. 211-12.

brows' are associated with eyes and with other face motifs. Of especial interest in regard to the possible occurrence of an eyebrow motif together with cup-marks in a Cornish food-vessel barrow is the fact that cup-marks, invariably without an encircling ring, are not uncommon in the Boyne Culture. It would appear that British examples are, ultimately, related to the motifs of the Spanish 'Los Millares' Culture. When considering the affinities of 'eyebrow' motifs in Britain the striking parallels to some of the 'Wessex' material found in the Passage Graves of the Boyne Culture should not be forgotten. This is all the more cogent when the Wessex affinities of the Tregulland Type 3 food vessel are considered.²

THE DATING

A barrow with Food-Vessel affinities would seem likely to have been of Early or Middle Bronze Age date—Childe's Periods III or IV. The only closely comparable stake circle arrangement, beneath the barrow Sheeplays 293', is considered to belong to period V.

Conclusions

The interpretation of the structural evidence, and the comparative material, emphasize the diversity of the affinities of Tregulland Burrow. Much more complete excavation of barrows, and much more study of barrow structure and rite, will have to be undertaken before the full implications of the peculiar structure can be appreciated. All that can be indicated at the moment is the continued occurrence of concealed structures, guarding burials, throughout the Food-Vessel province, while a composite barrow, containing food vessels, recently excavated in North Wales,³ covered widely set concentric circles of stakes. Again, cup-marks cannot be said to be a prime feature of any particular group, although in Yorkshire they are often associated with food vessels. The 'eyebrow' device, however, suggests not only a relationship with the Boyne Culture but also, ultimately, with the Secondary Neolithic Groups which contributed so much to our native Bronze Cultures.

The hollow-based arrowhead points to a connexion with the Wessex Bronze Age, already implicit in the 'eyebrow' motif and the Type 3 food vessel. On the other hand, the plano-convex knife emphasizes the general Food-Vessel affinities of the series.

Hitherto slate discs have only been noted as elements of the material culture of the Severn-Cotswold and Clyde-Carlingford Chambered Tomb groups. Their occurrence in a Bronze Age barrow is not surprising when their wider significance is realized. Their associations emphasize the diverse bases of the secondary Bronze Age Cultures. The Tregulland barrow can only be regarded as the product of such mixed traditions.

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¹ Ibid., 218.

² P.P.S. xxiii, 158-9.

³ Pant y Dulath. Information from Mr. P. Hayes.

APPENDIX I

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The Cremations

Report by Dr. I. W. CORNWALL

From the satellite grave

The cremation was very well calcined and broken into very small pieces, so that hardly any skull-fragments were locatable, though numerous pieces were found, nearly all separated into outer and inner tables through the destruction of the diploe. Such sutures as could be identified were unossified, for the most part, so that an age for the individual under forty years was fairly certain. A few roots of molar teeth were completely closed, so that the individual was certainly fully adult and probably between twenty and thirty years old.

No fragment of the skull preserved gave any hint of the sex, save that the bones with both tables intact were rather thin, but as the position of these in the skull could not be determined, this criterion was considered to be inconclusive.

All parts of the body were represented by a few recognizable fragments and no evidence was found of a second individual. The olecranon notch of the right ulna was found and, by good fortune, a fitting fragment of the trochlea of the corresponding humerus. The unusually small size of the ulna fragment might have been due to warping of the bone in the fire, but the trochlea was found to fit it perfectly, so that no serious deformation can have taken place. The size of the fragment, therefore, indicates an individual of unusually gracile build and so probably a female.

With the human fragments in the main collection were two—a piece of a molar tooth and a small fragment of a metapodial—which were undoubtedly bovine. These seem unlikely to have been included by chance, so there is the possibility that at least these parts of an ox were cremated with the human individual. Both are from relatively inedible portions of the beast so that the reason for this (if such was the case!) is not clear. A search was made for other non-human remains without success.

From the interior of the cairn-ring

There was nothing recognizable.

APPENDIX II

Pollen

Report by Dr. G. W. DIMBLEBY, Imperial Forestry Institute, Oxford

A sample of soil, taken from the turf bank (layer 4, fig. 5), consists mainly of hazel (corylus) and two groups of fern spores (Polypodium and Dryopteris), with a smaller proportion of oak. Since oak is always under-represented by its pollen, this is probably more significant than the percentage would suggest. Assuming that all the pollen is coeval, the picture seems to be of hazel woodland with some oak, and a rich fern flora. Species of open country are not abundant, yet there is sufficient trace of weeds of agricultural land and of grasses to suggest that there was some cultivation in the neighbourhood.

To be sure that this is a true representation of the vegetation at that time would require the examination of many samples from the mound but if the sample came from the 'turf' structure, it was presumably derived from a contemporary surface and should therefore be reasonably reliable.

Pollen Analysis of Sample from Turf Structure Beneath Barrow at Treneglos, Cornwall

Total number of pollen grains and fern spores counted	313
Absolute frequency	150,000 g. of oven-dry material
	(approximately)

		(approximately)	
Woody Species		Herbs	
Quercus	4.2	Gramineal 0.6	
Alnus .	1.3	Compositae:	
Betula .	0.6	Ligulifloral 0.3	
Corylus .	39.9	Ombulifloral 0.3	
Fern Spores		Plantago Lanceolata 1.0	
Polypodium	35.2	Succisa 1.0	
Dryopteris	14.1	Caryophyllaceal Un-	
		identified I.O	

(Percentages of total pollen and fern spores)

APPENDIX III

Charcoals

On pieces of carbonized wood recovered from the ? ritual pit, the stake-hole, and the body of the barrow, Mr. G. F. Levy (Botany Department, Imperial College of Science) reports that 'The material consisted of wood charcoal all being of Oak (Quercus sp.). From the straightness of the annual rings, the fragments would appear to have been part of a piece of oak taken from a tree or branch with a diameter greater than I foot. The probability is that it was part of a fairly large piece of timber.'

APPENDIX IV

(a) Finely Finished Arrowheads from Southern British Barrows

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Lambourn, Arch. Journ. Ixxviii, 47-54; Peake, Arch. Berks., p. 58, fig. 15.

Dorset

Conegar Hill, Archaeologia, lxxvi, 96, fig. 28. Oakley Down, Wessex from the Air, 178, fig. 41. Ridgeway Hill, Barrow Diggers, 1839, pl. 11, 75. Winterbourne Came, Antiq. Journ. vii, 459.

Wiltshire

Alton Parva, Archaeologia, lxxvi, 96, fig. 29. Everly, Barrow 17, Stourhead Cat., pp. 105-7. Fovant, Anc. Wilts. i, 239, pl. xxxIV. Monkton Down, Salisbury Vol. Arch. Inst., 1851, No. 28, on p. 105.

Breach Farm, P.P.S. iv (1938), 116-18.

(b) Arrowheads from Cornish Barrows

Botrea Hill Sancreed, Nenia Cornub., pp. 35-36. Cheeswring, Linkinhorne, Hencken, Arch. Corn. and Scilly, p. 304.

APPENDIX V

Cup-marked Stones Associated with Barrows in Southern England and Wales
Fig. 9

Cornwall

Hendraburnick, Davidstow. Cup-marks on capstone of a long-barrow chamber. Antiquity, x, 511.

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Nancekuke, Portreath. A perforated and cup-marked slate from a barrow. Antiq. Journ. xxviii, 26.

Three Brothers of Grugith, St. Keverne. Cup-marks on cover of a great cist. The possibility that these cup-marks are the result of natural weathering must not be excluded. Hencken, Arch. Corn. and Scilly, p. 77; Nenia Cornub., p. 278; Pre. Mon., pl. XXIII.

Tregulland Burrow, Treneglos. Present paper.

Treligga, near Delabole. A slate slab with three cup-marks (Truro Museum) is reputed to be from the retaining wall of a round barrow excavated in 1941. Grinsell, A.B.M.E., 127.

Dorset

Badbury Barrow. Cup-marks, together with axe and dagger representations on a slab sawn from a stone of the kerb of this barrow. Antig. Journ. xix, 294-9.

Carnarvonshire

Clynnog Fawr. Four orthostats support a capstone which bears on its surface cup-marks, some of which are joined by channels. Wheeler, *Prehistoric and Roman Wales*, p. 82; Daniel, *Chamber Tombs*, p. 192.

Glamorganshire

Maen Cattwg. Cup-marks with a channel, on an isolated stone that may have been derived from a barrow. Wheeler, Prehistoric and Roman Wales, p. 82.

Simondston Cairn. Cup-marks on a small stone incorporated in a cist containing two food vessels. *Archaeologia*, lxxxvii, 130-41.

Monmouthshire

Crick Barrow. Cup-marks on two large stones incorporated in the kerb. Arch. Camb. xcv (1940), 169-91.

Pembrokeshire

Trefael. A large slab tilted on edge, its upper surface is covered with cup-marks. It may well have been the capstone of a cist. Bull. Board of Celtic Studies, v, 277.

Trellyffiant. Orthostats defined a chamber 8 ft. by 4 ft. in width and 5 ft. in height. A prostrate orthostat, and the capstone's upper surface, bear shallow cup-marks. There are slight traces of a barrow around this structure. Wheeler, *Prehistoric and Roman Wales*, p. 82.

A MAIL SHIRT FROM THE HEARST COLLECTION¹

By E. MARTIN BURGESS

This mail shirt, which was in the Hearst Collection and is now in the Armouries of the Tower of London, dates from the fourteenth century. By tradition it was the property of Rudolph IV, Duke of Austria, Carinthia, and Ferrette (1339-65), but, as far as is known, there are no records to prove this. It is, however, a fine, early shirt which is well worth recording.

The shirt is constructed of alternate rows of riveted and whole rings, of rump length, with a wide and rather square neck opening and three-quarter length sleeves. Brass rings are used for decoration, two rows on the rump edge and three on the sleeve edges.

A collar of heavy fifteenth-century mail has been added at the neck, but this is a 'restorer's' addition as it has been linked on with cut rings from the collar. This is a type of shirt which would not have had a high collar.

DESCRIPTION OF THE RINGS

Recorded thickness of wire (in inches to the nearest thousandth) Whole rings.

Centre of trunk: 0.045, 0.0455, 0.038, 0.049, 0.021.

Recorded variation: 0.028. Average: 0.04.

Lower sleeve: 0.043, 0.037, 0.037, 0.03, 0.037.

Recorded variation: 0.013. Average: 0.037.

Riveted rings.

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Centre of trunk: 0.048, 0.0485, 0.0485, 0.049, 0.048.

Recorded variation: 0.001. Average: 0.048.

Lower sleeve: 0.034, 0.03, 0.034, 0.033, 0.034.

Recorded variation: 0.004.

Average: 0.033. Brass rings: 0.048, 0.021, 0.018, 0.02, 0.021.

Recorded variation: 0.003. Average: 0.02.

(0.048 is in the rump fringe and the rest are in the sleeve borders.)

Attached collar: 0.076, 0.085, 0.076, 0.078, 0.078.

Recorded variation: 0.009. Average: 0.079.

The writer is indebted to the staff of the of Works by whose kind permission the photo-Armouries of the Tower of London who more than graphs of it are here reproduced. once took the shirt off exhibition and to the Ministry

Recorded diameter of rings (where riveted, recorded parallel to rivet joint)
Whole rings.

Centre of trunk: 0.499, 0.511, 0.478, 0.522, 0.501.

Recorded variation: 0.044. Average: 0.502.

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Lower sleeve: 0.487, 0.477, 0.484, 0.478, 0.471.

Recorded variation: 0.016. Average: 0.479.

Riveted rings.

Centre of trunk: 0.497, 0.509, 0.501, 0.501, 0.510.

Recorded variation: 0.013. Average: 0.504.

Lower sleeve: 0.472, 0.425, 0.472, 0.466, 0.462.

Recorded variation: 0.047. Average: 0.479.

Brass rings: 0.458, 0.463, 0.481, 0.477, 0.481.

Recorded variation: 0.023. Average: 0.472.

Attached collar: 0.497, 0.47, 0.481, 0.461, 0.489.

Recorded variation: 0.036. Average: 0.48.

The whole rings

All the whole rings are of iron and all are punchings from a sheet. The sheet used for the lower half of the arms, where the mail is lighter, was thinner than that used for the main construction. The rings in the lower sleeve were punched out with a smaller punch than that used to produce the rings in the centre of the trunk but the internal diameter of each ring remains about the same, which causes the ring wire to be narrower as well as thinner than that in the main construction. The same internal diameter also ensures that the same number of rings cover the same area, and a constriction is not produced at the change-over from one type of ring to another. The rows of whole rings slope to the left.

The riveted rings

The riveted rings are made from flat section drawn wire, the lower sleeve rings being drawn down farther than the rest. This fact is clearly shown by the measurements given above which also indicate that care was taken to match the brass to the iron wires.

All the rivets, in both brass and iron rings, are of iron. They are of the wedge type with their rectangular backs flush with the ring surfaces facing inwards. The direction of overlap of the rings is anti-clockwise.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE SHIRT

The brass decorations

The rump edge is decorated with two rows of brass rings. The sleeve edges are decorated with three rows of brass rings running round the sleeve and fixed at right angles to the rows in the sleeve. All the brass rings are riveted.

Irregular rump edge

At some time in its history some rows have been removed from the rump edge of the shirt just above the brass border. This was not done all the way round the border and at some time the two rows of brass rings must have hung down as a loop almost detached from the shirt. It is fortunate that it did not become quite detached or it would have been lost and no evidence would remain either of the brass border or of the original length of the shirt. However, in an attempt to restore the shirt, probably at the same time as the addition of the collar, the brass border was linked up to the body once more but the rows that had been removed were not replaced. Instead oriental mail rings, their rivets broken open (this would not have been so easy had fourteenth- or fifteenth-century European mail rings been used), were employed to join on the brass border. This accounts for the irregular rump fringe, there being two more rows on the right than on the left.

The shape of the shirt

Because of the irregular rump fringe the last row of iron rings on the left was chosen for the bottom counting row. This is the third row on the right. The bottom counting row contains 161 rings. The top counting row, the first whole row under the arms and the 73rd row from the bottom counting row inclusive, contains 172 rings inclusive. The rump edge, therefore, is 11 rings smaller in circumference than the chest.

There are 4 sets of increasing idle rings near the rump edge, in the centre of the front and back and at each side, to form an expansion for the hips. There are 2 of these idle rings at the back on rows 6 and 10 from the bottom counting row (pl. xxi, c). There are 3 idle rings in the front on rows 6, 10, and 14 (pl. xxi, a). There are 2 idle rings on the left side on rows 6 and 10 (pl. xxi, d). There are 4 idle rings on the right on rows 2, 6, 10, and 14 (pl. xxi, b). This would make a total addition for the hips of 11 rings but, as can be seen on pl. xxi, b, there is also one reduction at the back to the left of the increases placed in row 2. There is another decrease in the front a little to the right of the 3 increases also placed in row 2. The total increase for the hips is therefore 9 rings.

The decreases for the waist are in two lines of idle rings which slope upward and outward on the back of the shirt (pl. xxi, c). These lines are not placed at the same height, the right-hand one being lower than the left-hand one. The lines decrease at the rate of one idle ring to every 4 rows, but in the left-hand line there is a break in the continuity half-way up. The right-hand line starts on row 30 and goes up to row 66, producing 10 idle rings one to every 4 rows. The left-hand line starts on row 34 and ends on row 72; 5 idle rings, one to every 4 rows, then a gap of 5 rows and then another 5 idle rings, one to every 4 rows. There are 46 rings between the tops of the lines of decreases and 30 rings between the bottoms. This can only be an approximate count because the ends of the lines are not situated in the same rows. This completes the description of the change of shape in the counted section. The row reductions under the right arm (pl. xxi, b) do not affect us here because row changes and the idle rings produced by them do not change the ring breadth of a mail structure. For the counted section then,

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the total increase at the rump edge is 9 rings. The total decrease at the back is 20 rings. Therefore 11 rings have been subtracted which is the already counted difference between the top and bottom counting rows, so all the changes of shape in this section have been found.

Shoulder-blade expansion

On each shoulder at the back there are 10 idle rings, one to every other row, increasing for the shoulder blades and the hunching forward of the shoulders. The left-hand increase starts on row 92 from and including the bottom counting row, but the right-hand increase starts on row 90 due to row changes in the back.

Unusual row changes

In the centre of the back between the shoulders (pl. xx1, c, marked with a diamond) rows 91 and 93 from and including the bottom counting row on the left are removed with the hole-type row reduction producing 2 idle rings. This accounts for the shoulder-blade increases not starting in the same row on both sides.

Under the right arm (pl. xxi, b) 4 rows are taken out in pairs by the knot type row reduction and instantly put in again, but the 4 idle rings produced, one to every pair of rows removed, in no way affects the count of ring circumference of the shirt.

The sleeves

Both sleeves have a top circumference of 82 rows and a bottom circumference of

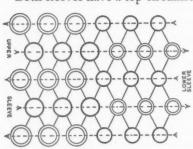


Fig. I

66 rows. The 16 rows are taken out in pairs with the hole type row reduction on the underside of the arms² (pl. xxi, b, d). From the neckband, to, but excluding, the brass border, the left sleeve is 61 rings long and the right sleeve is 62 rings long. These counts were made in the riveted rows which slope to the shoulder on the left sleeve and, in the upper arm, slope from the shoulder on the right sleeve. Of the 61 and 62 rings the bottom 32 in each row are of thinner and narrower wire which makes the lower part of the sleeves much lighter and more

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flexible. In the right sleeve at the change of one wire to another the riveted rows become rows of whole rings and the rows of whole rings become riveted rows (fig. 1).

The arm-pits

Under the arms the sleeve rows join the trunk rows at right angles. The ends of

1 Antiq. Journ. xxxiii (1953), pl. xxiii, e, and fig. 6. The basic structures and methods of production of mail cannot be explained again here and readers who do not fully understand them should turn to Antiq. Journ. xxxiii, where they will find

the basic techniques set out in diagrammatic form and described.

² On the left arm one pair, not shown on pl. xxi, is on the outside of the sleeve near the elbow.

the alternate rows in the sleeve being linked to one and two rings in the body alternately. $^{\text{\tiny I}}$

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There is a neck-band 5 rows deep across the shoulders where the sleeve rows meet it at right angles with a similar structure to that found under the arms. Each alternate row, the riveted rows in the sleeves, links to one and 2 rings in the neck-band alternately. The first row in the neck-band, probably the original neck edge, is of whole rings, so the fifth row must also be of whole rings, and this is why the riveted rows in the sleeves must be used to link to it.

The later collar

Above the neck-band a collar of fifteenth-century mail, 10 rows deep, has been added by cutting the rings in the 10th row and linking them to the first row in the neck-band. This is a modern alteration and the front of the neck may have been cut open at the same time. The type of shirt with a narrow neck-band and a square neck opening does not usually open down the front, for the neck opening is always large enough for the head to be thrust through. On this shirt, however, there is now an opening in the front of the neck 32 rows deep starting on row 76 from the bottom counting row and including the later collar.

Conclusions

The shirt is a fine one in good state and the constructional plan revealed by the analysis shows that it belongs to the same tradition as the Ernart Cowein shirt (no. 920 in the Wallace Collection)² though probably at an earlier stage of development. The number of increases and decreases at the back is rather larger than usual, there being 10 in each group, but there is no clump of reductions in the small of the back and the expansion for the hips is much smaller than usual, an increase of only 9 rings. Except for 3 increases and one decrease near the bottom there is no expansion or contraction in the front of the shirt at all. The alternate rows of riveted and whole rings are usually regarded as a fourteenth-century sign and it is for this reason that the shirt can be placed in the fourteenth century though, as far as is known at the moment, the shape of the shirt might equally belong to the first few years of the fifteenth century before the thickening of the ring wire starts to take place.

It is now time to discuss more fully the use of whole rings in a mail structure and to explain the reasons for their disappearance in Europe in the late fourteenth or early fifteenth centuries. Early mail of Roman origin such as the first- or second-century mail from Carlingwark Loch³ or from Newstead⁴ is of quite different construction to later mail in Europe, but it is made with alternate rows of riveted and whole rings. Until further evidence has been collected it is safe to assume that

² Ibid. xxxiii (1953), pl. xxiv.

¹ Ibid. xxxvii (1957), 203, fig. 4.

³ Proc. Soc. Ant. Scot. lxxxvii: 'Three Metal-

work Hoards of the Roman Period from Southern Scotland' by Stuart Piggott, V-P.S.A.

⁴ Curle, Newstead, p. 161; pl. xxxvIII, 10.

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the use of whole rings was the common practice and that it continued up to the end of the fourteenth century. The reason for the use of whole rings at the beginning of the mail-makers craft was probably as follows. When wire drawing, punching, and riveting were difficult it is easy to understand why mail-makers wished to use as few riveted rings as possible. Not only would the labour of riveting be halved but the work could be subdivided. One man could be employed, with punches and sheet or ribbon metal, stamping out the whole rings. The only disadvantage was that the craftsman who built the finished garment had to link his riveted rings, not only through the 'whole' row in the garment but also through the next 'whole' row below the one he was actually working on. In other words each riveted ring had to be linked through four others before it was riveted. These rings tended to

get in the way and hamper the work.

The method also produced an attitude towards the finished product in the craftsman's mind. He had to think of two rows at once as he was working and his designs had to take this into account. The right sleeve of the Hearst shirt is an example of the troubles that can result from the use of whole rings. One of the factors which controls the build-up of a mail garment is 'row slope'. If the first row slopes to the right the second must slope to the left and the third to the right and so on. Two rows with the same slope cannot be linked to each other, so if whole rings are to be used in alternate rows then the whole rings will always slope the same way in any one garment. In practice they usually slope to the left, which in turn is probably dependent on the direction of overlap of the riveted rings at the rivet joints, and this direction must remain constant because of the methods used to manufacture the riveted rings themselves.¹

From all this it can be seen that though the use of whole rings may reduce the physical labour of constructing a garment it restricts the mail-maker in the number of patterns he may use as well as very much increasing the brainwork involved. However, it was probably not these disadvantages which brought about the change

at the end of the fourteenth century.

By the fourteenth century the riveting technique had been perfected and the objection to having all the rings riveted must have largely disappeared. In the opinion of the writer the greatest difficulty encountered when riveting was the punching of the rivet holes. A fine mounted steel punch was required for this and, judging by results, these punches were giving very little trouble long before the change to all riveted rings was made. Wire drawing had also improved so the all-

riveted shirt was a much more practical proposition.

The change, however, must be regarded as part of the other rapid changes that were going on in the production of arms and armour in the second half of the fourteenth century. The mail-maker, every now and then, was required to produce mail of an exceptionally dense texture. Density of texture not only depends on the size of the rings but on the thickness, and breadth as well, if it is a ribbon wire, of the wire employed in relation to the internal diameter of each ring. Maximum density, and therefore greatest strength, depended, not on the desired flexibility of the finished product but on the minimum space through which each ring could

¹ Antiq. Journ. xxxiii (1953), 48-55.

still be linked before it was riveted and the accessibility of each rivet point after it had been so linked. As has been stated above, when whole rings are used each riveted ring has to be passed through four whole rings before it is riveted and this cannot be done if a really dense texture is desired. If, however, all the rings are riveted then each ring at the time of linking will only have to pass through two others, and there will be no second row to fold back while the ring is being riveted.

As the demand for denser mail increased a point would be reached in each workshop where the whole ring punches would cease to be used and now that the mail-maker need only think of one row at a time the alternate row technique would not be used again. This natural evolution must have taken place quite slowly all over Europe, but it probably happened quite suddenly in each workshop as

punches, now little used, were broken or lost.

To return to the Hearst shirt: alterations always tend to obscure the original plan, but in this case they are not extensive enough to prevent a full examination and it is easy to see what has been done in recent times. It may have been thought, when the collar was added, that the shirt once had a high collar and that it was missing. Though fourteenth-century shirts with high collars do occur, the usual form is to have a wide and rather square neck opening. If an aventail was to be worn over it the aventail would come right down over the shoulders and a collar

might not be necessary.

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There are certain features about the original construction which are exceedingly hard to explain in the light of our present knowledge. There are at least two quite different possible explanations for the irregular expansion of the hips with some rings actually taken out again. It is possible that the maker changed his mind about how many increases he required. It will be noticed, however, that all the decreases here are at a lower level than the increases and this once again raises the important question of where the maker started when he began to build a shirt. Naturally the neck opening and the arm junctions are the most difficult part and the work might be simplified if the shirt was started at the bottom and there was a solid piece to build on. If this shirt was started at the rump fringe with a brass border and built up the body then the maker would have to be decreasing though he would have increases in his mind. An absent-minded worker might start his increases as decreases in this way and then correct the fault higher up.

The row changes under the right arm and in the centre of the back are much harder to explain than the irregular increases for the hips. Unless our beliefs about the build-up of a shirt are fundamentally wrong, and at the moment there is no reason to suppose that they are, then these row changes can hardly be accidental. The reduction of rows, especially when alternate rows are composed of whole rings, has to be a quite deliberate act. If, then, the row changes are deliberate they must have been carried out for some definite reason. If the shirt was made for some individual who carried his left shoulder slightly higher than his right, then he would require extra rows above the waist on his left while a droop might occur under the right arm. Adjustment of the design to fit such an individual might produce row changes similar to those found in this shirt. It is, however, difficult to see what difference would be made by only two extra rows on the left. The

removal of four rows for a very short distance under the right arm certainly does

lift the level of the rows slightly (pl. xxi, b).

A mail shirt of this type was never a close fit as it was usually worn over a considerable thickness of padding which tended to blur any irregularities, short of real deformity, in the body underneath. Most mail-makers, however, seem to have been over-conscious of the body form and really did try to make a well-fitting garment. The trouble taken over these row changes does not agree with the somewhat slipshod hip expansion, and it may well be that there is some hidden error in the shirt which compelled the maker to make the best of a bad job which would be quicker for him than pulling his work to pieces and correcting the fault.

The differing length of the sleeves is explained by the change from riveted to whole rings in any row at the change of ring weight on the right sleeve. The sleeves are terminated at both ends by borders of rings running at right angles to the sleeve rows and these borders must be fixed to sleeve rings of the correct slope. The changes on the right sleeve are probably the result of building the lightweight lower sleeves first and joining them on afterwards. Riveted rings would be used for this and the edges to be joined would have to have the correct row-slope. If the lower sleeves were identical one would be incorrect and a change of ring at the

join would be the only way to join them on.

This fine shirt is spoilt by the modern additions and repairs. Its appearance would be much improved by the replacement of the missing rows in the rump fringe by rows of butted rings similar in appearance to the original rings. Also there is no reason why the fifteenth-century high collar should not be removed. It is a fine piece of work in its own right, but it is quite out of place here fixed as it is to a shirt which already has its own border at the neck. It might then be possible to see if the opening at the front of the neck is original and, if not, to close it up again.

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a. Front



b. Right



c. Back



d. Left

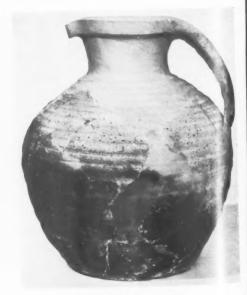
A mail shirt from the Hearst Collection



a. Lower filling of the pit



b. Red-painted jug, no. 1 (1)



c. Rilled jug, no. 5 (1)

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A NORMAN PIT AT PEVENSEY CASTLE AND ITS CONTENTS

By G. C. Dunning, F.S.A.

DURING the excavations conducted by Mr. L. F. Salzman, F.S.A., at Pevensey Castle in the winter of 1907-8, a deep pit was found and its filling dug out. The pit (called site VII) was located in the north-west quarter of the interior of the Saxon Shore fort, about 60 ft, south of the fort wall and nearly opposite the third bastion north of the Roman west gate. A short account of the pit was published in the excavation report, but the nature of the pit and the finds from it deserve more detailed study than they have yet received. The finds were divided between the Sussex Archaeological Society's Museum at Lewes and the Public Museum at Hastings; I am greatly indebted to the respective curators, Mr. N. E. S. Norris, F.S.A., and Mr. J. Manwaring Baines, F.S.A., for facilities to examine and make drawings of the objects, and permission to publish them here. Samples taken from the various wooden objects found in the pit were kindly identified by Mr. G. L. Franklin, of the Forest Products Research Laboratory, Princes Risborough, as noted in the descriptions of these objects. Acknowledgements for technical reports on the wattling are made in the text. Mr. Salzman has kindly supplied information and unpublished prints, valuable as a record of the bottom of the pit, of which the negatives are fortunately preserved at Hastings. Mr. Salzman has also read this report and approved of the interpretation placed on his findings. The following description of the pit and its contents is the result of correlating all the information now available.

The long trenches dug in this part of the site showed a layer of black soil, 2 ft. 6 in. to 3 ft. in thickness, covering the natural yellow clay; this black soil also filled the pit. In the upper part of the filling of the pit, at a depth of 7 ft. 9 in. below surface, was a quantity of whitish or cream-coloured pottery, comprising two jugs with red painting (one jug is illustrated in the report), parts of two other jugs of similar ware, one decorated with vertical applied strips, and a fifth pot similarly decorated but of grey ware. As the digging proceeded, two holes, each about 2 in. diameter and 14-15 in. apart, were observed leading downwards and slanting from east to west. Farther down it was found that these holes contained wooden shafts, 2 in. square, which still remained in position. These shafts proved to belong to a rough ladder, of which one rung, held in place by wooden pegs, was preserved, while pieces of other rungs and a number of the pegs were also found.

At a depth of 16 ft. 6 in. below surface a group of objects was found: a wooden spade with a rounded shaft 3 ft. 6 in. long and a flat blade 14 in. long by 7 in. wide; the staves and one end of a wooden cask (wrongly identified as a bucket in the report); and considerable traces of some woven material, possibly sacking. Slightly lower were found two wooden bowls, 8 in. diameter and 1½ in. deep; remains of

¹ Arch. Journ. lxv (1908), 128-9 and 133, with photograph of one jug on pl. 1v, fig. 3; reprinted in tion is in Proc. Soc. Antiq. xxii, 152.

wattling; some pointed stakes; and finally a second wooden spade, shorter than the first, but with a flat shaft and a flat blade bevelled on the underside of the bottom edge.

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The bottom of the pit was 19 ft. below surface, so that all the wooden objects were grouped in the lowermost 2 ft. 6 in. of the filling. The pit had been dug through a thick layer of yellow clay, 11-12 ft. deep, into a layer of fine sand. The

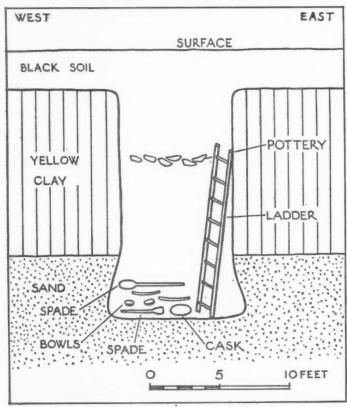


Fig. 1. Reconstructed section of the pit.

depth of the pit was thus about 16 ft. from the top of the clay, which gives the approximate level of the land surface in medieval times. The sides of the pit widened out in the sand, so that the bottom was partly undercut below the clay. The photograph of the lower part of the pit (pl. xxII, a) shows the shafts of the ladder in position, the oval end of the cask at the foot of the ladder, and the longer spade. The width of the pit is not stated in the report, but seems to be nearly three times the length of the 3 ft. scale; it is assumed to be about 8 ft.

The details given in the report and repeated above, together with the photograph of the contents at the bottom of the pit, enable a reconstructed section to be drawn

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(fig. I). This shows that the pit was in use, then abandoned and filled in to two-thirds of its depth, before the pottery was deposited there late in the eleventh century or very early in the twelfth. As a structure of the early Norman period containing a variety of objects the pit is therefore of particular interest.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this deep pit or shaft at Pevensey Castle may now be considered, as far as this is possible from the record of the excavation and the nature of the finds. The ladder found in position shows that the pit was intended to be open and visited from time to time. The nature of the objects found at the bottom of the pit—the spades and wooden bowls, the sacking, and above all the wine cask—strongly suggest that the pit was used for storage purposes. That is, it was a cellar in which wine was kept in casks, and probably grain or other perishable foodstuff stored in sacks. The lighter spade or shovel and even the wooden bowls could be used for scooping grain out of sacks into other receptacles. It is also possible that meat was kept in the pit, but of this there is no evidence.

The pit was abandoned with the ladder still in position, and this requires a word of comment. If the pit was filled in deliberately, surely the ladder would have been removed for use elsewhere. The explanation appears to be that the sides at the bottom of the pit, dug to a depth of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ ft. into fine sand, collapsed, resulting in the widening out recorded in the report. As a result of this collapse the pit may have been considered dangerous, and it was then abandoned. The cause of the collapse was probably water in the sand, which in 1907 gave the excavators a great deal of trouble. If water was the cause of the abandonment of the pit, then it was probably in use only a short time.

Analogous pits have been found in a number of recent excavations by the Ministry of Works. The most relevant information is at Southampton, where Mr. John Wacher, F.S.A., has found several twelfth-century pits at sites in Vyse Lane and outside the Bargate, in depth varying from 6 to 14 ft., which apparently were used for storage purposes. One pit had post-holes along the sides and at one end, which must be for a fixed cover over the greater part of the pit. Similar pits are also known at thirteenth-century sites. It has been suggested that a chalk-lined pit 6 ft. in depth at a medieval moat at Anlaby, near Hull, and another, larger, pit at a fortified manor at Huttons Ambo, near Malton, were larders where perishable foodstuffs that had to be kept cool were stored.¹

A deep pit of the kind found at Pevensey would require to be covered to keep out the rain and prevent human beings and animals falling into it. The cover would have to span a width of 8ft. or more and yet be rigid and light in construction, and easily removed when required. A suitable cover could be made of hurdles or a timber frame filled in with branches and wickerwork. Timber work used to cover pits is in fact known from a recent excavation. In a thirteenth-century mound connected with salt-making at Seasalter, near Whitstable, were two pits covered by rough timber frames, about 7 ft. by 6 ft., filled in with branches and wickerwork.² Two hurdles, about 5 ft. by 3 ft. 6 in., were also found, though these were not

¹ Yorks. Arch. Journ. 1956, pp. 74, 76.

² Arch. Cant. lxx, 53, pl. 11.

covering pits. It is possible that the pointed stakes found at the bottom of the Pevensey pit formed part of a timber cover, or the means of fixing it in position, and that the wattling (p. 217) was the binding for the stakes of a cover.

The cask (fig. 4) is the most remarkable object found in the pit. There can be little doubt that it had contained wine, and that both cask and contents were imported from Normandy. The pottery (fig. 2) from the upper part of the filling also had the same origin. Pevensey, then, provides an early instance of trade in wine and the pottery jugs in which it was served, both derived from the same source abroad. An exact parallel is provided by the wine trade of Gascony, which also brought across the fine quality polychrome jugs in the late thirteenth century.

The evidence that the jugs were heated by fire in order to warm the contents (p. 211) enables us to go a step further, and infer that the Normans mulled their wine, a custom very prevalent during the Middle Ages. In that case the wine imported from France was red wine and not white, and this has a bearing on the source of the wine imported to England from Normandy. The merchants of Rouen were among the principal wine exporters in late Saxon and in Norman times. The documentary record² that in the late tenth century Ethelred II fixed the tolls to be paid in London by 'the men of Rouen who came with wine' is here substantiated by the evidence of archaeology. It is probable that the wines brought over from Rouen were mostly those of the Seine basin or of Burgundy, since it is these which would naturally find an outlet by the Seine, over which Rouen then had a monopoly.³ The conclusion is, therefore, that at Pevensey the Normans imported red wine, probably Burgundy, which they mulled before drinking.

It remains to relate the pit to what is known of the Norman castle at Pevensey. The period of use of the pit or cellar is shown by the pottery in it to belong to the early Norman occupation of the site. At the Conquest, Pevensey was granted to Robert, Count of Mortain, who built a castle within the Roman fort by enclosing about an acre and a half of land in its south-east corner with a palisaded bank and ditch. The rest of the fort, a little under ten acres in extent, was made to serve as the outer bailey of the Norman castle. The main west gate was repaired and a new ditch dug outside it. The east gate was also repaired, and other repairs carried out to put the wall of the Roman fort in good order.4

Abundant evidence of the early Norman occupation was revealed in 1936, in the course of excavations conducted by Mr. F. Cottrill. Several pits were found inside the line of the north wall of the Roman fort and also near the east gate. These pits contained a quantity of rough hand-made cooking-pots with sagging bases,⁵ and belong to the early Norman period as identical sherds were found in the lowest filling of the ditch outside the west gate. It is evident, then, that the early Norman occupation extended, even if sporadically, over the greater part of the area enclosed by the Roman fort.

- 1 Arch. lxxxiii, 114 ff.
- ² Homines de Rotomago qui veniebant cum vino. F. Liebermann, Die Gesetze der Angelsachsen (1903), i, 232.
- ³ H. Pirenne, 'Un grand commerce d'exportation au moyen âge: les vins de France', *Annales*
- d'histoire économique et sociale, v (1933), 231.

 Ministry of Works Guide to Pevensey Castle

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- (1958), pp. 9-10 and plan.
- 5 One of the Pevensey cooking-pots is illustrated in Sussex Arch. Coll. xci, 63, fig. 6.

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It is remarkable that the pottery found in the upper filling of the pit consists of jugs only, and all of it is imported from Normandy. The coarse domestic wares found so plentifully in the early excavations and again in 1936 are entirely absent. The amount of imported pottery and the wine cask strongly suggest that the owner of the cellar was a person of substance, able to afford plenty of wine and luxury pottery in which to serve it.

POTTERY

Fig. 2. No. 1 is in the Lewes Museum, and nos. 2-5 in the Hastings Museum. 1 (pl. xx11, b). Complete jug of whitish sandy ware. The rim is heavily flanged outside, and has a large pinched-out lip. At the base of the neck is a raised cordon, with roller-stamped trellis pattern. The body is globular, marked by wide corrugations on the lower part, with a shallow sagging base. On the upper part of the body are two bands of trellis pattern, which fade out towards the handle. The body is decorated with broad stripes of orange-red paint, which start on the neck below the lip and curve round the body to the base. The handle is broad and strap-like, and springs from the flanged rim.

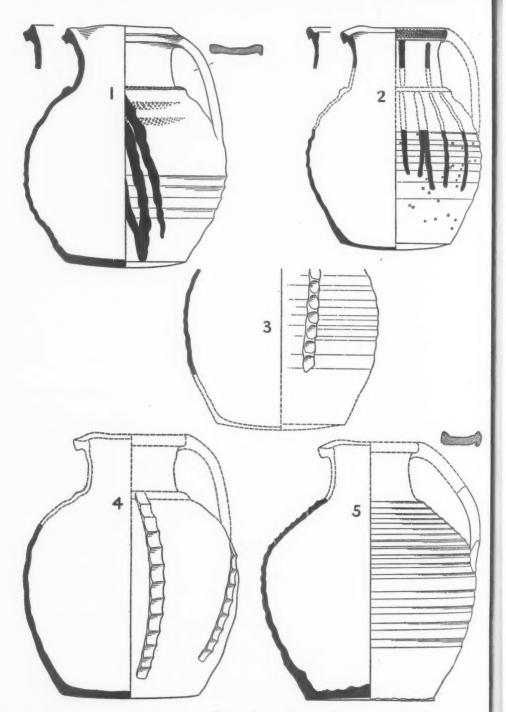
2. Rim and body fragments of jug of fine smooth cream-coloured ware, with yellow-toned surface. The rim has a deep collar outside, is bevelled on the inside with an internal beading, and has a large pinched-out lip. Round the collar is stamped trellis pattern, deeply and clearly impressed. The body is broadly corrugated at the bulge, fading into shallow grooves towards the sagging base. On the neck and body are spaced red-painted stripes, which were probably interrupted by a cordon at the base of the neck, as on no. 1. This jug is distinguished by the presence of spots of yellow glaze on the bulge and lower part of the body, and a few spots also occur on the outside of the rim. Each spot of glaze has a pit-mark at its centre.

3. Part of body of jug of yellow sandy ware with yellow surface. The surface is corrugated, and down the side is a vertical applied strip pressed by the fingers. The spacing would allow for not more than four such strips.

4. Body and base of jug of grey sandy ware with harsh grey surface. The shape is a full ovoid, and the base is sagging with a rounded basal angle. The body is decorated with four widely-spaced applied strips, ridged by thumb-pressing. Two similar strips were attached at the lower end of the handle, and diverged outwards down the body.

When found the rim and neck of this jug were complete, though the handle was missing. The drawing is based on a photograph and half-scale sketches in Hastings Museum. The rim was collared outside, with a large pinched-out lip. At the base of the neck was a broad cordon, and the applied strips on the body came up to this level

5 (pl. xxii, c). Body and base of jug of thick whitish ware with stone grits, mostly light red and some of crushed flint; the surface is drab white. The body is ovoid, with the curve flattened above the bulge. The surface is heavily corrugated; on the upper part the grooves are narrow and the ridges sharp, lower down the grooves are broader and separated, fading out above the base. The base is flat, slightly



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Fig. 2. Pottery (1).

raised underneath at the middle, with concentric wire-cutting marks made in removing the pot from the wheel. The lower half of the handle remains, and is broad and strap-like with thickened sides. The top of the jug has been restored in plaster to conform with no. 1.

All five jugs are imports from Normandy, and are broadly of the same type; large capacious vessels with the handle attached to the strongly made rim. Two jugs (nos. I and 2) have the rouletted and red-painted decoration characteristic of early medieval pottery in Normandy, notably at Rouen, and two others (nos. 3 and 4) have applied strips also well known there. Three of the jugs have convex or sagging bases, but another (no. 5) has a flat base; both types of base are known on jugs of this class in Normandy. The corrugated surface of the jugs, well marked on nos. I-3 and very emphatic on no. 5, is another feature (le décor annelé) of pottery in Normandy, and has been commented on already in this Journal. It should be noted that the Pevensey jugs show a considerable range in ware and decoration; whitish ware of fine quality predominates, but coarser grey sandy ware is also present. A similar but even wider range of fabric occurs among the twelfth-century imports from Normandy found in the 1957 excavations at Southampton, conducted by Mr. John Wacher.

An unusual feature of this group of jugs is the presence of spots of glaze on no. 2. This is only the third instance to be noted of glaze on twelfth-century pottery imported to England from Normandy. The other examples are part of a decorated jug from Exeter, 2 and a green-glazed sherd with diamond rouletting found in the 1957 excavations near French Street, Southampton. The evidence in Normandy suggests that the partial glazing of jugs started about the turn of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, and became more general in the course of the twelfth century.

One feature remains to be noted, since it explains the use to which the jugs were put. Four jugs (nos. 1, 2, 3, and 5) have the lower part of the body stained grey or black, and the staining also extends over the base when present. The discoloration is most extensive on jug no. 1 (pl. xx11, b). It covers the base and sides up to the level of the stamped bands. The front of the neck, the lip, and most of the rim are also stained. The back of the body and neck, and the handle itself, are not stained. Evidently the staining was caused by pushing the jugs into the edge of a fire or hearth in order to warm the contents. In this position, the parts stained black would be precisely those most exposed to the smoke. The significance to be attached to this use of the jugs has been considered in the discussion (p. 208).

Wooden Objects

Ladder (fig. 3)

One rung only survives of the ladder, in the Hastings Museum. The wood is identified as beech, Fagus sylvatica. It is now 18½ in. long, oval in section, broken at one end. The original end is cut down thin for about 6 in., and about 2½ in. from the end is a hole 0.7 in. across for the fixing peg. The recorded details are sufficient for a reconstruction of the ladder, of which the shafts were 2 in. square and 14 or 15 in. apart. The drawing shows a section of the ladder, with two rungs 18 in.

¹ Antiq. Journ. xxxi, 185.

² Ibid., p. 184, fig. 2, 1.

apart. The rungs were 25 in. long, passed through oval holes in the shafts, and were secured outside the shafts by pegs, of which a number were found. A ladder about 12 ft. long would be required to reach from the mouth of the pit to its bottom, and it probably had eight rungs, as shown in the section of the pit (fig. 1).

In the absence of comparative material of the medieval period, the Pevensey

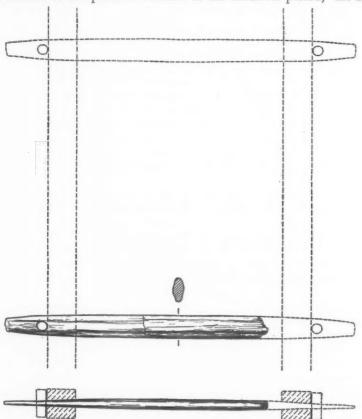


Fig. 3. Reconstruction of ladder (1).

ladder may be compared with a complete Roman ladder of oak in the Guildhall Museum. This was found in a first-century well on the site of the new Bank of London and South America, in Queen Victoria Street. The ladder is 15 ft. 6 in. long, and the shafts measure 11 in. by 3 in. and are 131 in. apart. There are eight rungs, spaced 20 in. apart. The ends of the rungs are pared down slightly to fit

holes in the shafts are shown in an eleventh-century English illuminated MS. (A. Graber and C. Nordenfalk, Early Medieval Painting, p. 189). No securing

¹ Two ladders with the rungs passing through pegs are shown, so that the ladders may have been similar in construction to the ladder from Roman London.

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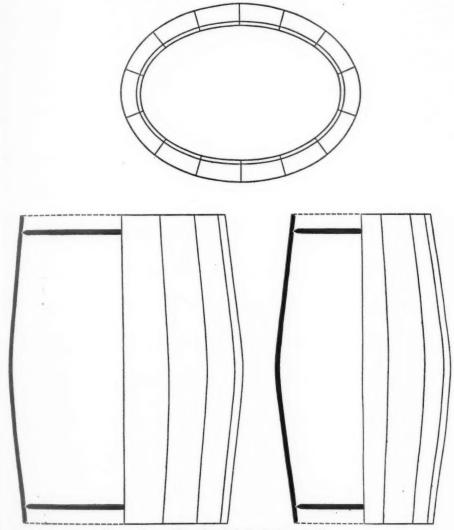


Fig. 4. Front, side, and end views of wine cask (1).

tightly in holes in the shafts. There are no pegs, so that the rigidity of the ladder depends on the close fit of its component parts.

Cask (fig. 4)

The cask is represented in the Lewes Museum by three staves and one end, identified as oak, Quercus sp. The staves are $21\frac{1}{4}$ in. long; $3\frac{1}{4}-3\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide at

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the middle, and $2\frac{3}{4}$ in. wide at each end; and 0.3 in. thick at the middle, thinning to 0.25 in. at each end. The ends are bevelled on the inside, and just over 1 in. from each end is a groove of V section. The end piece is elliptical, $14\frac{1}{2}$ in. by $9\frac{1}{2}$ in.; it is 0.3 in. thick at the middle, thinning to 0.25 in. at the edge. The edge is bevelled from each side all round. The staves are bent at the middle at a very obtuse angle; two staves have the original curve and fit closely together, but the third stave is warped. The shape of the cask can therefore be reconstructed accurately; it was shaped as the sections of two elliptical cones placed base to base. The width of the staves allows for fourteen staves originally. The outside measurements of the complete cask were: length $21\frac{1}{4}$ in.; size at each end $14\frac{1}{2}$ in. by $9\frac{3}{4}$ in.; size at middle $16\frac{3}{4}$ in. by $12\frac{1}{4}$ in. The inside dimensions are taken from the drawings, and from these the capacity of the cask can be calculated. I am grateful to Mr. S. N. Collings, of the Ministry of Works, who has kindly provided the formula for the capacity, based on the following data:

Semi-diameters inside, at end (a, b) .					0	43 in., 7 in.
, , , ,	0			0		53 in., 8 in.
Height inside (h)		9.	*		0.	18½ in.

Then capacity = $\pi h[ab + \frac{1}{2}\{a(b^1 - b) + b(a^1 - a)\} + \frac{1}{3}(a^1 - a)(b^1 - b)].$

For the dimensions given, the capacity works out at 2,294 cu. in., which equals 8.27 gallons or 37.6 litres.

A cask of this capacity and its contents would weigh about 90-100 lb., and it could be carried on a man's shoulder. Such a wine cask is depicted in the Bayeux



Fig. 5. Man carrying wine cask. From the Bayeux Tapestry.

Tapestry, carried by a man at the provisioning of the Norman fleet for the invasion of England (fig. 5). This cask is bound by withies and has a vent hole stopped by a peg in one end. These details of construction were no doubt repeated on the Pevensey cask, with a bung hole through one of the staves at the middle. In use the bung must be loosened to allow the liquor to flow out of the vent hole. The same scene in the Tapestry shows a huge barrel on a cart, which the inscription expressly states to contain wine; its construction is the same as the smaller cask.

A final point concerns the shape of the Pevensey cask, and the reason for its being made elliptical in plan instead of the more usual circular section. Two suggestions may be offered. The first is that this barrel is more conveniently shaped for carriage on a man's shoulder or by a beast of burden than a normal barrel. Secondly, if it were transported in a ship more wine could be carried per floor space using barrels of this shape, which allows the cargo to be stowed more closely.

Only two other discoveries of parts of wine casks of about the same date as the Pevensey cask appear to be known. The first was found on a site at the north-east corner of St. George's Street and Upper Brook Street, Winchester, in 1957, and kindly brought to my notice by Mr. F. Cottrill, curator of Winchester City Museum. This is half of the oak end of a cask, 16 in. diameter and $\frac{3}{4}$ in. thick, with a vent

hole I in. diameter about midway between the centre and the edge. The other was found in excavations at Hungate, York, by Miss K. M. Richardson, F.S.A., and is the oak end of a cask, 10 in. diameter, with a vent hole I in. diameter at the centre.

Spades (fig. 6)

The spades are in the Hastings Museum; both are of beech, Fagus sylvatica.

1. From the upper level. This spade is now in two pieces; part of the shaft, 15 in. long, oval in section, with the end roughly trimmed by a knife, and the greater part of the blade with 8 in. of the shaft forming one piece with it. The blade is rectangular, and now measures 13 in. long by 7 in. wide; it meets the shaft in a shoulder at each side. In the drawing the shaft has been restored as 3 ft. 6 in. long, as stated in the report.

2. From the lower level. Spade in five pieces which join, length 2 ft. 3 in. The shaft is flat in section, and gradually widens into the blade so that the greatest width, 6 in., is towards the cutting edge, which is bevelled on the under side. The spade is now very thin, due to shrinkage since it was found.

The first spade is much heavier in make than the second. It is likely, therefore, that they served different purposes, the first being for digging and the second a shovel or large scoop, such as could be used for shovelling loose substances, such as grain, out of sacks.

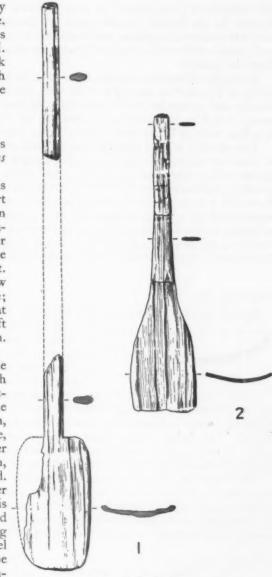


Fig. 6. Spades (1).

Wooden spades of this kind are known from the Roman period onwards. Roman spades were usually shod with iron, and Dr. Corder has described several types and

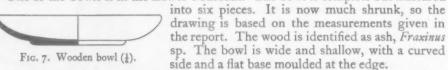
the methods of fixing them. In early medieval times spades of several types were in use. In the Bayeux Tapestry men are shown building the castle at Hastings; they use spades with pointed metal-shod blades and only one foot-tread for digging, and shovels with oval or splayed blades for shovelling-up the earth and stones to form the mound.²

Examples of medieval spades, other than those from Pevensey, are scarce. One found at Chester³ on the edge of the town ditch is 4 ft. 3 in. long, with a T-piece handle and triangular blade provided with foot-treads on both sides. A similar spade, 2 ft. 6 in. long, with a dark stain on the blade for the spade-iron, was found in a lead mine at Wirksworth, and is in the Derby Museum.

The material is more plentiful from several of the ship-burials in Norway. That at Oseberg⁴ contained eighteen spades, equally divided in two groups, the first of spades with a foot-tread on one side only of the blade, and the second of spades gradually widening from the shaft to the blade. In length the Oseberg spades vary from 2 ft. 7 in. to 3 ft. 9 in., with blades from 11½ in. to 17½ in. long. At Gokstad⁵ were found ten spades, representing both of the groups at Oseberg. Other finds of spades in Norway are mentioned by Petersen.⁶ These discoveries show that the various types of spade and shovel in use in England in Norman times, and later, were already current in Scandinavia in the ninth century.

Bowl (fig. 7)

One of the bowls is in the Lewes Museum. The bowl is complete but fractured



In the Bayeux Tapestry is a scene of men preparing and serving food for a feast by the Normans at Hastings before the battle.⁷ On a sideboard and again on the table are shown hemispherical vessels, some with moulded bases, all coloured in yellow. The shapes are not those of the pottery of the period, but are proper to wood. In one bowl on the sideboard is placed cooked meat on a spit, and two of the diners hold bowls from which they are eating or drinking.

The Normans, then, used wooden bowls like those found in the pit at Pevensey as dishes, plates, and cups for serving food and eating it at the table. Wooden bowls of this simple type continued in common use throughout the Middle Ages, and are mentioned in enormous numbers in medieval inventories. Examples of twelfth-century wooden bowls have also been found at Oxford and Deddington Castle, 8 and

¹ Arch. Journ. c, 224.

² The Bayeux Tapestry, ed. Sir Frank Stenton (1957), pls. 50-51.

³ Journ. Chester Arch. Soc. xl (1953), p. 66,

⁴ S. Grieg, Osebergfundet, ii, 221-3, pl. xvII.

³ N. Nicolaysen, Langskibet fra Gokstad, pl. vII, figs. 6-7 and II.

⁶ J. Petersen, Vikingetidens Redskaper, p. 182.
7 The Bayeux Tapestry, ed. Sir Frank Stenton
(1957), pl. 49 and pl. 1x (in colour).

⁸ Oxoniensia, xv, 53, fig. 19.





Wattling (1)

similar bowls, dated late thirteenth or early fourteenth century, are published from London.¹

WATTLING

Pl. XXIII. About two dozen twisted strands of plant-like material. A sample was submitted to Mr. J. F. Levy, of the Department of Botany, Imperial College of Science, London, who reports that the microscopic structure is very distorted, but sufficient is visible for it to be identified as a diffuse-porous hardwood, possibly willow, Salix sp. The material was also sent to Miss Elisabeth Crowfoot and to Mr. L. G. Wiltshire, of the Rural Industries Bureau, for their opinions on the purpose of the wattling; the substance of their reports is as follows. The larger pieces show a left-hand twist. The shape of the largest looped pieces and one or two of the smaller ones suggest some form of binding of larger stakes to smaller ones, as on a large basket. Alternatively, they may be from the base or side of a square basket, where the rands or slews turn round the side or corner stakes, or, in view of the shrinkage, from the similar turn-round at the end of a hurdle.

Mr. L. Biek, of the Ancient Monuments Laboratory, adds that the fragments are now hard and brittle, and coated with a thin layer of dried grey mud. There are small patches of powder-blue deposit in places, which is probably vivianite, a hydrated iron phosphate.² The conclusion is that the fragments of woody material were buried in a deposit that was, or rapidly became, waterlogged and remained so without major interruption until the time of excavation in 1907, and were then allowed to dry out very rapidly. In the circumstances the present dimensions of the pieces bear no uniform relation to their original shape and, particularly, size, which may well have been twice as large or even more, and this is confirmed by the botanical report.

1 Antiq. Journ. xvii, 416-18, fig. 2.

in the present context, see Journ. Applied Chemistry,

² For an account of the significance of vivianite iii (1953), 80-84.

THE CAMP DU CHARLAT, CORRÈZE

By OLWEN BROGAN, F.S.A., and SHEPPARD FRERE, F.S.A.

With an Appendix by M. AYLWIN COTTON, F.S.A.

CHARLAT is a small oppidum in Corrèze about 2 km. south of Ussel (route N. 682) but within the commune of that name. By the kind permission of the owner Monsieur Ralite and the good offices of MM. Pierre Fournier and Marius Vazeilles, a very short trial excavation was carried out here during five days in September 1957. Its purpose was to investigate the possibilities for a somewhat larger definitive excavation, permission for which is to be sought for 1959.

The camp¹ occupies a promontory in the valley of the Diège bounded by steep slopes except on the south, where the slope is more gradual: the main rampart, still standing up some 12 or 15 ft., cuts off this approach. The other slopes are either scarped or crowned by ramparts which are today quite slight. At the north end a modern quarry has cut into the camp at the point where a small extension or

annexe projects northwards at a slightly lower level.

The work undertaken in what proved to be very unfavourable weather conditions consisted of planning the earthwork and testing the ramparts by trial trenches at two places. At Site A (fig. 1) trenches were cut at the west end of the huge southern rampart where its height is reduced to just over 9 ft. Site B was at the north-east corner of the annexe, but here work proceeded only far enough to show that this

rampart was not built of stone.2

The main cutting (fig. 2) showed that the south rampart consisted of two elements: (a) a normal rampart built up of tips mainly of sandy grit obtained by scraping up the surface of the decayed granite subsoil; (b) a stone wall, which is almost certainly a Murus Gallicus, in front of this. Below the rampart was an old surface of decayed granite bearing faint traces of charcoal. The bottom course of the face of the stone wall was set in a foundation trench cut into this surface. Above it three other courses of the face survived in the area examined. In the uppermost of these four courses, two rectangular beam-holes were found, one 5 in. wide by 6 in. high, the other, lying 4 ft. to the west, being 5 in. by 5 in. Each had a filling of earth and small stones but was traced back into the wall 1 ft. 8 in. in the case of the first, and I ft. in the case of the second. No iron nails or transverse beams were encountered, but excavation was not sufficiently complete to make this result significant. Search was made 4 ft. farther west again, but without result, for here the rampart was disturbed by a substantial conifer.

The wall-face is not particularly well built: the blocks vary from a maximum of I ft. 3 in. long by 6½ in. high down to pieces 6½ in. long by 5 in. high. But a little

² The crest here was only c. 1 ft. 6 in. above the

The camp has been briefly described by internal level: the external slope dropped steeply for c. 30 ft. The rampart appeared to consist of granite grit with a few small boulders. There were no finds.

M. Vazeilles, Bull. de la Société des Lettres, Sciences et Arts de la Corrèze, i, 1954.

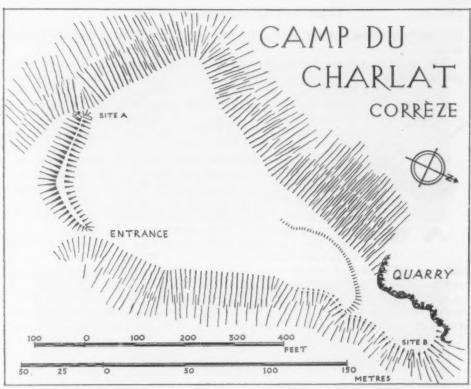


Fig. 1. Plan of the earthwork.

CAMP DU CHARLAT CORRÈZE

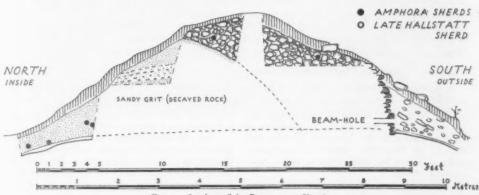
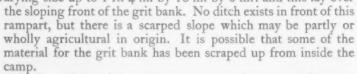


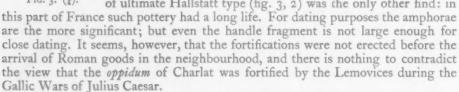
Fig. 2. Section of the Rampart at Site A.

care has been taken with the jointing (pl. xxiv, b). About 12 ft. of face was cleared in all.

The upper part of the front half of the rampart was composed of loosely piled granite blocks of varying size up to 1 ft. 4 in. by 10 in. by 6 in.: and this lay over



Both portions of the rampart produced fragments of Roman amphora, and there is nothing to show that two periods of construction are involved. It seems more likely that we have a composite rampart. Such a construction is not unusual among Muri Gallici, as Mrs. M. A. Cotton has shown. Of these sherds the only piece capable of being drawn was a handle (fig. 3, 1) in dense fine pink ware with a cream slip. One small rim-sherd of ultimate Hallstatt type (fig. 3, 2) was the only other find: in





Notes on some Hill-forts in the Vicinity of the Camp du Charlat
M. Aylwin Cotton, F.S.A.

The fourteen hill-forts listed below, all in Upper or Middle Corrèze, have been described recently by M. Vazeilles² from first-hand knowledge of the sites. The list makes no claim to be comprehensive and all sites in the Lower Corrèze are omitted, but for many of these sites good descriptions cannot always be found. The purpose of this note is to offer a preliminary grouping of these sites, based on excavated examples or those of known form, to which others in the Department can be added later,³ and to serve as a background for the present excavation report.

Group IA. Oppida with muri gallici defences

1. Camp du Charlat (or Camp du Pont-Thaubourg), Ussel. The subject of this report. A univallate plateau contour hill-fort on a promontory, of some 5 hectares area, it has a murus

¹ e.g. l'Impernal (Lot) and Tarodunum (Baden). See Appendix on *Muri Gallici* in *Hill-forts of Northern France* by Sir Mortimer Wheeler and Miss K. M. Richardson (Society of Antiquaries Research Report No. XIX, London, 1957), especially pp. 168–9.

² Énceintes, camps et stations fortifiées. Inventaire pré-historique en Haute et Moyenne Corrèze', Bulletin de la Société des Lettres, Sciences et Arts de la Corrèze, no. 1 (1954), 1–16. Tulle.

³ For the departmental list of earthworks in Corrèze, with such bibliography as then existed, cf. Bulletin de la Société Préhistorique Française, x (1913), 296–8, List XXI. Of the 14 sites listed here, only nos. 1 and 9, and doubtfully 2 and 14 are included.



a. General view of the camp from the north-west. The earthwork occupies the top of the wooded hill below the skyline in the centre



b. The surviving wall-face on the exterior, showing beam-holes



gallicus defence across the neck of the promontory. There is a La Tène III burial below the hill-fort. There are indications here that a Hallstatt culture lasted well into La Tène III times.

Group IB. Oppida with possible, but unproved, muri gallici defences

2. La Moutte, Sérandon, Neuvic. This univallate plateau contour hill-fort, of over 4 hectares area, was partially excavated by Vazeilles in 1939 and 1949. He found material of Hallstatt and La Tène III date, and a second-century A.D. Gallo-Roman burial inside the hill-fort. The structure of the defence is not described, but he found 'short iron points' which may perhaps be iron nails from the rampart. On these finds, on size, form, and the La Tène III material, it

could well be a murus gallicus.

3. Camp de la Guilhaumie (or Camp du Pont-Maure), La Guilhaumie, Rosiers d'Egletons. A lowland univallate plateau contour fort partly defended by marshes. It was trenched by Lucas-Shadwell before 1939. The nature of the defence is unknown. Ward Perkins, writing of the pottery found,1 suggests that purely La Tène fabrics are absent,2 as the La Tène influences had not reached the massif central western regions, and that, whilst there was a small aristocratic minority of La Tène settlers, the bulk of the population, even as far north as Gergovia, retained its sub-Hallstatt culture as late as the first century B.C. On analogy with Gergovia, this site may not have a murus gallicus defence, but on the pottery finds it equates with the sites above noted.

4. Le Châtelet (or Les Bessades), La Gane, Lamazière-Basse, and Darnetz. This is a complex site which was discovered by Vazeilles and excavated by him in 1945 and 1949. The plateau top has a univallate defence enclosing 1.25 hectares, but there is also a vitrified gneiss wall across the neck of the promontory which seems to have an outer ditch and an internal quarry ditch. There were tunber imprints in this wall. Inside the hill-fort Vazeilles found pointed nails, La Tène III pottery like that of La Moutte and amphorae, but most of the pottery was Hallstatt. It is possible that this is a two-period site, in which in Period I there was a Preist type timberlaced rampart across the col,3 and in Period II a univallate plateau contour defence of murus gallicus build.

Group Ic. Unexcavated univallate plateau contour hill-forts

5. Camp de Fenovillac (or du Fort), St.-Étienne-aux-Clos. A site of under one hectare which Vazeilles considers comparable to La Moutte and La Guilhaumie and which was possibly occupied in La Tène III times.

6. Camp de Lavergne, Vitrac. A similar site of about one hectare.

7. Camp d'Espartignac, Espartignac. Another of these sites overlooking the R. Vézère. It includes the dolmen of La Maison du Loup.

8. L'Hort des Fades, Bordes, Davignac. A small site of 20-25 ares in area. 9. Enceinte de Roche-de-Vic, Albussac. A larger site of about 2 hectares area.

Group IIA. Univallate promontory hill-forts with Preist type defences Cf. No. 4 above.

Group IIB. Unexcavated univallate promontory hill-forts

10. Camp de Fontjaloux, À la Tour, St.-Étienne-aux-Clos. A site of 3 to 4 hectares area with a high bank across the col.

Corrèze.

11. Camp de Clamondeix, Sornac. A small site with traces of ancient dwellings inside.

1 Arch. Journ. xcvii (1940), 49-50, 54-55, Hellenistic black gloss forms. 79-81, and fig. 22.

² Southern influence is apparent both in the de Sermus, and two at Escoallier, all in Lower amphorae and in native copies of Campana A

3 Other vitrified hill-forts are known at the Camp

12. Camp du Treich, Tarnac. A small site of under 4 ares area which has two banks and ditches across the col. Vazeilles thought that the site might have been occupied in both Iron Age and medieval times, so it has been included provisionally with the univallate series.

Group III. Unexcavated hill-forts of other forms

13. Camp de Monédière, Chastagnol, Chaumeil. A ridgeway camp defended by a bank and outer ditch at each end and valley slopes on the sides. It is very narrow and is only c. 35 m. long.

14. Camp de Chabannes, Meymont, Laroche-Près-Feyt. Vazeilles started to excavate this site in 1953-4 and found sherds dating to the end of the Roman period and invasion times. It is not certainly an Iron Age site.

It would seem, from the evidence at present available, that these hill-forts were defended in Hallstatt times, more especially those of univallate promontory or *éperon barré* form, with timber-laced ramparts, probably of Preist type. There is, at present, no satisfactory excavation of a defence of this type in the region.

But during the first century B.C., and probably around 60 B.C., some sites were newly defended, and others were redefended, with ramparts of *murus gallicus* type. At this time a univallate contour defence seems to have been preferred, rather than a single rampart drawn across a col. The top of the plateau was scarped all round, although, as elsewhere, the expensive *murus gallicus* was sometimes used only across the col, as was probably the case at du Charlat.

Unlike the Armorican tribes, where one major oppidum was perhaps fortified with a murus gallicus against the Roman invasion by each tribe, in regions closer to the Provincia Romana tribes like the Segusiavi and the Cadurci appear to have fortified more than one site in this manner. This appears to be the case also with the Lemovices. In the Lower Corrèze they are already known to have had a murus gallicus oppidum at the Puy du Dôme near Monceaux, and another in Haute Vienne at Villejoubert. The Camp du Charlat, in Upper Corrèze, is a new addition to the list of these sites. La Moutte lies between it and the Puy du Dôme, and may perhaps be another to add to the list, as may also be Le Châtelet at La Gane farther west.

Corrèze is part of the original territory of the Gaulish tribe of the Lemovices. We know from Caesar's references to them that in 52 B.c. this tribe joined Vercingetorix in his revolt;² are said to have sent a contingent of 10,000 to assist him in his last stand at Alesia;³ and that Sedulius, commander and chief of the Lemovices, was killed at that battle.⁴ After the seige of Uxellodunum in 51 B.c., Caesar cantoned two legions in the country of the Lemovices.⁵ It would seem, therefore, that Ward Perkins's aristocratic minority with La Tène influence was sufficiently strong before the time of the Roman invasion to impose on the sub-Hallstatt population the new anti-Roman battering ram defence of the Gaulish Confederacy.

¹ Appendix to Hill-forts of Northern France, Research Report No. XIX of the Society of Antiquaries (1957), pp. 182-3 and 189-90.

² B.G. vii, 4.

³ B.G. vii, 75.

⁴ B.G. vii, 88. ⁵ B.G. viii, 46.

A NEOLITHIC SITE AT CRAIKE HILL, GARTON SLACK, EAST RIDING OF YORKSHIRE

By T. G. MANBY

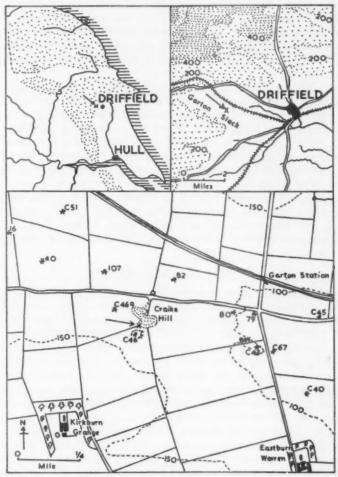


Fig. 1. Occupation site at Craike Hill indicated by arrow. Barrows of the Garton Slack Group marked in lower map.

Introduction

CRAIKE or Crayke Hill stands on the southern slope of Garton Slack, in the north-western corner of the parish of Kirkburn, three miles west of Great Driffield (Nat.

Grid. ref. SE 972576) (fig. 1). Garton Slack is a wide dry valley penetrating the central chalk Wolds of the East Riding of Yorkshire between Wetwang and Driffield. Scattered over the flat floor of the Slack are the much-ploughed remains of Mortimer's Garton Slack Group of round barrows. Once Craike Hill, which is a natural hill of fine chalk similar to the rest of the Slack floor, was a prominent landmark, but gravel digging since 1938 has reduced it to a crater. Originally it stood about 50 ft. above the floor of the Slack and was composed of beds of fine chalk gravel interspersed with sandy layers towards the base. The beds show a dip towards the north. Over the top of the hill was a fine sandy brown soil containing chalk, flint, and greenstone pebbles. Much of this remains as overburden dumped on the lower slopes.

Since 1950 Messrs, C. & E. Grantham of Driffield have examined the face of the pit for flints. In 1955 they conducted a small excavation on the high northern edge of the pit (between the hedge and the letter C in Craike on fig. 1), where bones had been exposed by rabbits. This excavation produced a tiny sherd of beaker pottery with comb decoration of diagonal lines between horizontal lines. The sherd was too disintegrated to preserve. This excavation and one conducted later produced a quantity of flint implements and flint waste, but the area was too disturbed

by rabbits to show any evidence of an occupation layer (see Appendix).

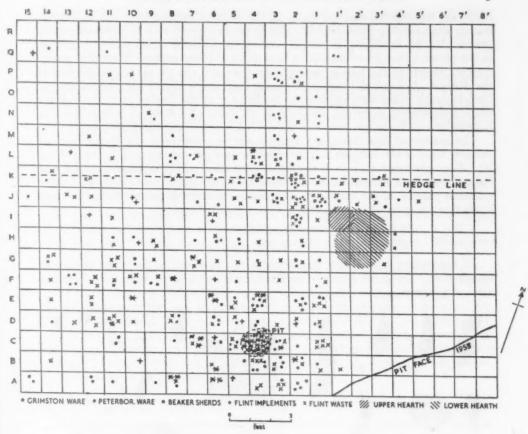
An examination of the west face of an extension of the pit to the south-west towards a low hill produced sherds of pottery and flints. With the ready consent of the owner, Mr. Megginson of Kirkburn Grange, Messrs. C. & E. Grantham with the assistance of Messrs. R. Wadsworth, C. Pilling, and E. Mellor excavated an area of 400 sq. ft.

THE EXCAVATION (fig. 2)

The area available for excavation was limited on the north-east and south-east by the face of the gravel pit; on the north-west deepening deposits of dumped soil made excavation difficult. This area had once been a hollow between Craike Hill and a low hill to the south-west. Over the site was a modern dumping layer 8 in. thick, which overlay the original surface and increased in thickness as the original surface dipped north of the hedge which cut the site. The original soil was a light brown sandy soil resting on the chalk gravel. The occupation deposit was indistinguishable in the soil profile but its lower limit was a layer of large flinty gravel. Above this for 3 ft. the soil was interspersed with potsherds and flints.

The occupation area was excavated and the finds recorded by foot squares and arbitrary layers 3 in. thick. On the floor of the deposit was a hearth site represented by a patch of burnt sand and charcoal about 2 ft. 9 in. in diameter and 2½ in. thick. Three inches above this lower hearth, and partly overlapping it, was another 1 ft. 3 in. in diameter and 2½ in. thick. Around this were scattered sherds of Grimston Ware and flint flakes. The rest of the general scatter of pottery and flints began a foot above the flinty gravel, the greatest concentration being in the southern part of the excavated area. This concentration continued towards the north-west and

¹ Mortimer, Forty Years' Researches in British and Saxon burial mounds in East Yorkshire (1905), pp. 208-70.



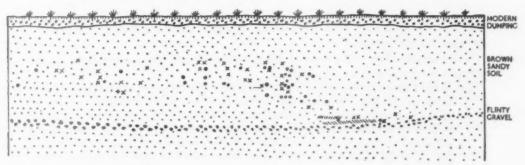


Fig. 2. Excavation plan and diagrammatic section of deposit in squares of series H and I.

decreased towards the east and west. In the midst of the southern area of concentration was a pit dug down from the middle of the deposit to 2 ft. below the flinty gravel. In the top filling of the pit were many sherds of a beaker, in the bottom of the pit were four flint flakes and a base sherd of Peterborough Ware (fig. 5, 28). Further sherds of the beaker were scattered around the pit in the middle foot of the deposit. A sherd of a rusticated beaker came from square L4. The sherds of Peterborough Ware were scattered in the top 2 ft. of the deposit and sherds of the same vessels were at depths differing by as much as a foot. A single sherd of Rinyo-Clacton Ware was found in square A7, a foot above the flinty gravel.

The scatter of flint flakes and implements was similar to the distribution of pottery, most of the scrapers and arrowheads were grouped around the area of the pit. The only other finds from the layers were small pieces of charcoal and a tiny fragment of unidentifiable bone. As the greatest concentration of finds was in the southern portion of the excavated area and nearest the gravel-pit face, it is very likely that the main occupation area has been quarried away.

THE FINDS

1. The Pottery

All the pottery is in a very fragmentary condition and no complete profiles of vessels exist. The general state of preservation is good, only a few sherds showing signs of weathering.



Fig. 3. Western Neolithic pottery (1). 1-10 Grimston ware. 11. Heslerton ware.

Western Neolithic Wares

1. Grimston Ware. This type of pottery is the second in quantity found on the site and is represented by three fabrics.

(a) A hard dense brown fabric with a black burnished interior surface, containing small calcite grit. Most of the Grimston Ware is in this fabric, a total of fifty-five sherds scattered throughout the deposit. This is the only type of pottery in the lower foot of the deposit around the hearths. Two rims, three carinated and one rounded shoulder with finger-tip decoration, are illustrated (fig. 3, 1-5). The rest of the sherds were plain and lack any characteristic features. (b) A softer light brown fabric with chalk grit and signs of laminated structure. Represented by ten sherds of which four are rims (fig. 3, 6-9).

(c) A coarse black fabric with sandy grit. Represented by only five sherds, one is a shoulder (fig. 3, 10).

2. Heslerton Ware. A single rim of this ware was picked up from the surface of the site. This is in a coarse dark brown fabric containing pebble grit. The edge has been rolled over inwards to produce a club-shaped rim. Along the top of the rim is a line of finger-nail impressions and a row of vertical finger-nail impressions decorate the inner edge (fig. 3, 11).

Secondary Neolithic Wares

1. Ebbsfleet Ware. Three much weathered rim-sherds seem to belong to this variety of Peterborough Ware.

1. Rim and shoulder sherd of soft black ware containing some flint grit. Light brown surface; traces of lattice decoration on the shoulder (fig. 5, 30).

2. Rim sherd, black, sand gritted paste; traces of a buff surface. Weathered (fig. 5, 31).

3. Rim sherd, black ware with fine flint grit, soft weathered surfaces (fig. 5, 32).

2. Mortlake Ware. Most of the pottery from Craike Hill, amounting to 222 sherds, belong to this class of pottery. Many of the sherds are nondescript, and, apart from the fabrics described below, most of them belong to a heavy coarse ware with a brown exterior and dark brown or black cores and interiors. Mixed with the clay as a gritting agent are particles of flint. The flint used for this purpose is now white but some sherds do contain black flint grit. The particles are up to \{\frac{1}{2}} in. long and often erupt through the surfaces.

Detailed description (figs. 4 and 5)

1. Two rim sherds of a bowl, rim diameter 6.6 in. Dark brown fabric containing flint and calcite. Decorated with wrapped cord magget impressions.

2. Three rim and shoulder sherds of a bowl, rim diameter 6.3 in., similar to no. 1 in fabric and decoration.

3. Five sherds of a bowl in a soft coarse black ware containing much chalk grit. The rim and neck are plain and on the body is incised herring-bone decoration. The thickening profile and curve of the sherd suggest that the pattern is vertical.

4. Rim sherd; soft, reddish-buff interior, light brown exterior, black core, fine flint and pebble grit. Incised decoration on the top of the rim, finger-nail and bird bone decoration on the interior.

5. Rim sherd, weathered on the exterior. Soft reddish-buff fabric containing fine flint grit. Wrapped cord maggot impressions on the double bevel inside the rim. Traces of bird bone impressions on the shoulder and lower edge of the rim. Grid. ref. SE 972576) (fig. 1). Garton Slack is a wide dry valley penetrating the central chalk Wolds of the East Riding of Yorkshire between Wetwang and Driffield. Scattered over the flat floor of the Slack are the much-ploughed remains of Mortimer's Garton Slack Group of round barrows. Once Craike Hill, which is a natural hill of fine chalk similar to the rest of the Slack floor, was a prominent landmark, but gravel digging since 1938 has reduced it to a crater. Originally it stood about 50 ft. above the floor of the Slack and was composed of beds of fine chalk gravel interspersed with sandy layers towards the base. The beds show a dip towards the north. Over the top of the hill was a fine sandy brown soil containing chalk, flint, and greenstone pebbles. Much of this remains as overburden dumped on the lower slopes.

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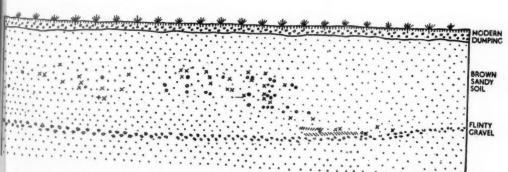
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*CRIMSTON WARE * PETERBOR WARE * BEAKER SHERDS + FLINT IMPLEMENTS * FLINT WASTE # UPPER HEARTH | LOWER HEARTH

Fig. 2. Excavation plan and diagrammatic section of deposit in squares of series H and I.

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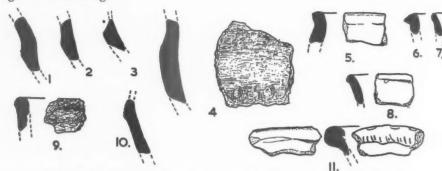


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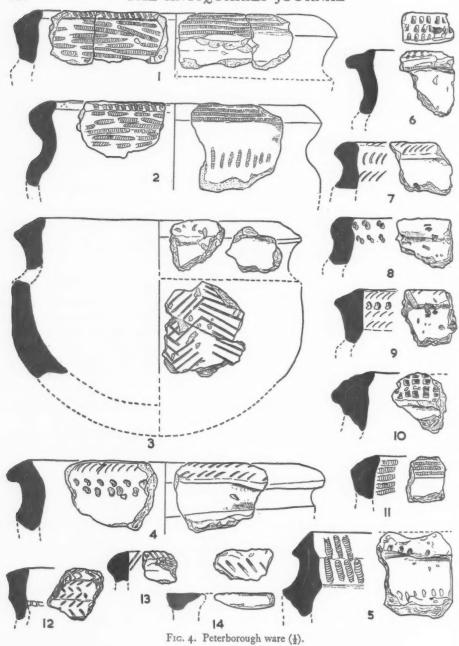
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4. Rim sherd; soft, reddish-buff interior, light brown exterior, black core, fine flint and pebble grit. Incised decoration on the top of the rim, finger-nail and bird bone decoration on the interior.

5. Rim sherd, weathered on the exterior. Soft reddish-buff fabric containing fine flint grit. Wrapped cord maggot impressions on the double bevel inside the rim. Traces of bird bone impressions on the shoulder and lower edge of the rim.



- 6. Rim sherd, dark grey, laminated ware, flint grit. Bird bone impressions on the top of the rim.
- 7. Rim sherd, buff surfaces, black core, flint grit. Finger-nail impressions inside and on top of the rim.
- 8. Rim sherd, coarse dark brown, black core, flint grit erupting through the surface in places. Thick cord impressions on the inside of the rim. A second sherd not illustrated.
- 9. Rim sherd, coarse dark brown, black core, much flint grit erupting through the surfaces; laminated structure. Finger-nail and bird bone impressions on the inside of the rim. Two other sherds not illustrated.
- 10. Fragment of a thick heavy rim. Decorated on the top with bird bone impressions.
- 11. Rim sherd, dark brown with chalk grit. Wrapped cord maggot impressions on the top and inside of the rim. A second damaged sherd not illustrated.
- 12. Rim sherd, squarish profile, dark grey laminated ware, light brown surfaces, flint grit. Incised decoration on the exterior and bird bone impressions on the inside of the rim. Two other sherds not illustrated.
- 13. Rim sherd, dark brownish grey, reddish patch on the surface, chalk grit. Incised decoration on the top and inside of the rim.
- 14. Weathered fragment of a flat-topped rim? Light reddish buff, no grit. Traces of incised diagonal lines on the top.
- 15. Two shoulder sherds of a bowl. Coarse dark grey, brown exterior surface, profuse flint grit. Incised herring bone inside and outside, a row of finger tip pinchings on the shoulder.
- 16. Small rim sherd, coarse brown weathered surface. Wrapped cord maggot impressions on the bevelled rim.
- 17. Small rim sherd, with an expanded flat-topped rim. Soft pale buff. Stab and drag decoration on the top of the rim.
- 18. Shoulder fragment, dark grey, reddish interior, flint grit. Plain.
- Body sherd, dark grey, buff surface. Incised decoration.
 Three body sherds, black, reddish brown exterior surface. Wrapped cord maggot decoration.
- 21. Body sherd, black, buff surfaces, flint grit. Shallow incised decoration. A similar but more weathered sherd not illustrated.
- 22. Body sherd, dark grey, laminated ware with chalk and pebble grit. Incised decoration.
- 23. Body sherd, dark brown, fine flint grit. Surface roughened with finger-tip jabs.
- 24. Body sherd, black with buff exteriors, much flint grit. Incised and rusticated decoration.
- 25. Body sherd, dark greyish brown, laminated, little grit. Shallow incised decoration.
- 26. Body sherd, black with reddish surface. Deep stab and drag decoration.
- 27. Portion of a flattened base, coarse reddish ware with calcite grit.
- 28. Portion of a flattened base, coarse orange surface, dark grey core, much calcite grit.

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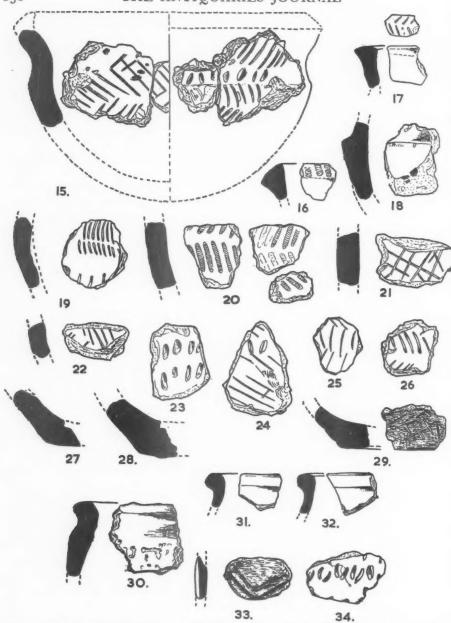


Fig. 5. 15-29 Peterborough ware. 30-32 Ebbsfleet ware. 33 Rinyo-Clacton sherd. 34 Rusticated sherd (\frac{1}{2}).

- 29. Portion of a flattened base, coarse light brown, black core, small chalk grit. Deep incised decoration.
- 3. Rinyo-Clacton Ware. One small sherd found in square A7 is attributable to the Rinyo-Clacton Culture. A body sherd broken off along a coil, soft dark grey brown. Two applied strips on the outer surface (fig. 5, 33).

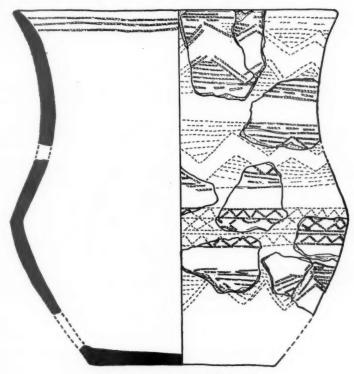


Fig. 6. Reconstruction of Beaker (1).

Beaker wares

sticated

I. Fifty-five sherds of varying size belong to a single beaker (fig. 6). A single complete profile of this beaker was not found, but by using the bands of decoration as a guide a profile can be reconstructed with only two gaps. This gives a vessel about $8\frac{1}{2}$ in. high, $7\frac{3}{4}$ in. rim diameter, and $4\frac{2}{5}$ in. base diameter. The beaker is rather squat with an out-curved rim and a carinated shoulder of slightly greater diameter than the rim. The fabric is hard brown with a reddish exterior surface and a black core. The decoration has been executed with a square-toothed comb; inside the rim are four lines. Between the rim and the carination are two bands of bar-chevron, and on the shoulder are zones of lines and curves between horizontal lines. Below the carination is a zone of hanging triangles.

THE ANTIQUARIES JOURNAL

2. The only other possible beaker sherd is from square L4. This is a small sherd of rusticated ware. The fabric is hard orange, with grey interior and some chalk grit. Across the sherd is a single line of paired finger-tip pinchings (fig. 5, 34).

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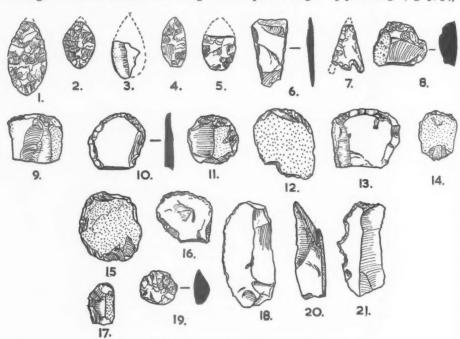


Fig. 7. Flint implements from the occupation deposit (1).

2. The Flint Industry

The flints found on the Craike Hill site include a large proportion of implements (fig. 7).

- 1-5. Five leaf-shaped arrowheads, all incomplete. Made of translucent brown flint, only No. 3 has thin pale bluish patina. All have shallow flaking and No. 3 is merely a retouched flake.
 - Transverse arrowhead, Clark type B. Grey brown flint. Steep flaking along the sides.
 - 7. Tanged and barbed arrowhead of grey brown flint. Point and a barb missing.
- 8-17. Convex scrapers, of pale brown flint with the exception of No. 9 which is of dense grey flint. Many of the scrapers still retain patches of a light brown pitted cortex. Nos. 12, 14, and 15 were made by trimming flakes from the exterior of a nodule.
 - 18. Long side-scraper, shallow flaking. Light greyish patina.

19. Poor round scraper produced by trimming a bulb. Brown flint patinated pale blue.

 Serrated-edge flake. Brown flint patinated pale blue, cortex remaining on the back of the flake.

21. Flake with secondary flaking along the edge. Brown flint with a thin pale grey-blue patina.

The flint waste from the site comprised one core and twenty-one flakes. The raw material used is almost entirely the brown flint found in nodules in the boulder clay of Holderness.

Discussion

The occupation deposit at Craike Hill presents a number of problems with regard to formation and dating. The generally unweathered condition of the pottery suggests that it is not derived. This fact, and the varying depths of the sherds of the same vessels, indicate that the deposit was formed rapidly at one period from actual occupation in the hollow. The soil filling the hollow could have been hillwash resulting from human occupation on the hill slopes above removing the vegetation. If contemporary occupation had removed the vegetation cover of the hill slopes, the southerly aspect of the slope would result in the drying out of the soil which could easily be washed down by heavy rain after a period of drought. The rapidity of the deposit's formation prevented the formation of any occupation horizon other than the flooring layer of flinty gravel. The only stratigraphy present was the superimposed hearths and the pit, although it was impossible to identify an horizon from which this was dug.

If this deposit was formed at one period, then all the finds must be contemporary; the only earlier material is the possible sherds of Ebbsfleet Ware, but, as they are weathered, they could be derived. The evidence suggests that Grimston Ware is here contemporary with Mortlake, Rinyo-Clacton, and certain Beaker Wares.

The Grimston Ware sherds are mostly very small and lack the fine paste and shape of the classical Grimston bowls from the Hanging Grimston Long Barrow.¹ The nearest parallels to the weak carinations and rounded shoulders are the bowls from the Kemp Howe underground hut site,² which is about five miles north of Craike Hill, and bowls from the Skendleby Long Barrow, Lincs.³ These bowls were regarded by Piggott as being allied while not strictly belonging to the Grimston bowls.⁴ They may be degenerations of the finer Grimston bowls.

The Peterborough Ware sherds which form the bulk of the pottery is mostly of the Mortlake variety. The three weathered sherds attributable to Ebbsfleet Ware show few distinct features except for the traces of lattice decoration on the large sherd (fig. 5, 30). The Mortlake Ware sherds show the thick typical rims of this variety (fig. 4, nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 10), but others have thinner rounded rims

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¹ Mortimer, op. cit., pp. 102-5; Newbigin, 'The Neolithic Pottery of Yorkshire', P.P.S. iii, 1937, p. 209, fig. 1, 1-3.

² Mortimer, op. cit., pp. 336-8; Newbigin, op. cit., p. 206, fig. 1, nos. 4 and 6.

³ Phillips, 'The Excavation of the Gaint's Hills Long Barrow, Skendleby, Lincs.', Arch. lxxxv (1935), pp. 78-79, figs. 20 and 21.

⁴ Piggott, Neolithic Cultures of the British Isles (1954), p. 114.

which show an Ebbsfleet descent (fig. 4, nos. 7, 8, 12, and 13). Further evidence of this Ebbsfleet influence is seen in the preference for incised decoration rather than cord impressions (fig. 4, nos. 3, 12-14; fig. 5, nos. 15, 17, 19, 21, 22, 24-26). Other unusual features are the vertical herring-bone pattern (fig. 4, 3). The usual preference in the Peterborough Wares is for horizontal patterns, but vertical maggot herring-bones occur on sherds from the chamber tomb of Bryn yr Hen Bobl, Anglesey. A thing difficult to parallel is the double internal bevel on a weathered sherd (fig. 4, 5). The late Peterborough Ware of the Driffield site2 is unrepresented except for the possibly flat-topped expanded rim (fig. 5, 14). All the bases are slightly flattened, but they do not resemble the narrow bases of the splayed-sided vessels of the Driffield site.

The sherd of Rinyo-Clacton makes another addition to the meagre finds of this culture from Yorkshire. Applied ribs are found on other finds of Rinyo-Clacton pottery in Yorkshire, the nearest find-spot in the area being Callis Wold, Barrow C70. Unfortunately no details of its finding are preserved, unless it is part of the 'crumbled remains of a food-vessel' with an inhumation in the central grave.³ This sherd (fig. 8) is in a hard grey-brown to orange laminated fabric with chalk grit. An applied wavy strip is present just below the rim both inside and out. The single sherd from Beacon Hill, Flamborough, has an applied strip with slashing.⁵ The sherds of the small Wykeham vessel also have applied cordons and incised decoration, and many of the vessels from the Manham Hill, Seamer, site also have applied cordons;6 other vessels from the site have rusticated decoration. This suggests that the Yorkshire Rinyo-Clacton pottery belongs to the southern province of the culture, as relief decoration, especially internal strips and rusticated decoration, is typical of the pottery of this province.⁷

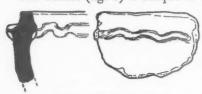


Fig. 8. Rim sherd of Rinyo-Clacton Ware from Callis Wold, East Yorkshire (1/2).

The beaker (fig. 8) is unique in Yorkshire, the carination, out-curved rim, and decoration on the inside of the rim are typical of the B1-beakers, while the bar-chevron is typical of A-beakers. B1-beakers are not common in East Yorkshire and most of the others lack the fine profile of the Craike Hill beaker. B1-beakers found in Yorkshire all come from the Wolds: Beacon Hill, Flamborough;8 Rudston, Barrow LXVII;9 and Swanland. 10 Beakers with bar-chevron decorafro

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tion are regarded by Savory as early in the A-beaker series. II Beakers with bar-chevron decoration on the body and neck are also rare in Yorkshire, as the

Hemp, 'The Chambered Cairn Known as Bryn yr Hen Bobl, near Plas Newydd, Anglesey', Arch. lxxxv (1937), pp. 253-92.

² Manby, 'A Neolithic Site at Driffield', Y.A.J. xxxiv, 1957, pp. 169-78.

3 Mortimer, op. cit., p. 170.

4 Mortimer Collection, Hull. No. CXXX.

⁵ Unpublished. Scarborough Museum. ⁶ Unpublished. Scarborough Museum.

7 Piggott, op. cit., p. 340.

⁸ Unpublished. Scarborough Museum.

9 Greenwell, British Barrows, p. 261; Brit. Mus. 79. 12-9. 927.

10 Unpublished. Mortimer Collection, Hull.

11 Savory, 'A Corpus of Welsh Bronze Age Pottery', Bulletin of the Board of Celtic Studies, xvii (1957), p. 220.

motive is mixed on most Yorkshire A-beakers. The only pure bar-chevron beakers from Yorkshire are from Brough, Eston Nab, and Ganton, Barrow XXI.3 The Craike Hill beaker is therefore a hybrid type A—B.

This fusion of beaker traditions provides a dating for the Craike Hill occupation deposit since the deposit cannot be earlier than the arrival of the A-beaker users. This event is certainly datable to the Late Neolithic, and later than the arrival of the B-beakers. The revised dating put forward by Smith for dating the Lyonesse Transgression of the Essex Coasts suggests that this event must have taken place at the end of the period instead of the beginning.4 This late dating for A-beakers in Eastern England has been supported by Savory.5 This further suggests that Grimston Ware remained in use into the Late Neolithic. By this period the separate cultural traditions of the Western and Secondary Neolithic Cultures in the area seem to have become mixed with intrusive Beaker cultures, for it is most unlikely that four cultural groups existed separately on the same site at that same

It is of some interest to compare Craike Hill with the Beacon Hill, Flamborough, site 17½ miles ENE.6 At this site a hollow on the south-west slope of a gravel hill contained two occupation horizons, the lower produced Heslerton Ware and a few sherds of Peterborough Ware which may be considered to be Ebbsfleet Ware. Some 9 in. above this was the upper horizon which produced sherds of a B1-beaker and cord-decorated B-3 beakers. Here there was a sterile layer between the two occupations, but of what duration is uncertain, as the same conditions of formation might have existed as suggested for Craike Hill. But bearing this limitation in mind Heslerton Ware must be earlier than B-beakers. This suggests a Middle Neolithic date for the occupation of the site. The finds from Craike Hill and Beacon Hill together do not support the scheme suggested by Piggott that Grimston Ware represents an early phase of colonization in the Middle Neolithic, which was followed by the Heslerton Ware in the Late Neolithic.⁷ The dating by pottery typology alone is very unsafe and must be supported by associations of other material. Grimston Ware on the mass of the evidence has Middle Neolithic associations and Heslerton Ware has Late Neolithic associations.8 Yet the two types occur together in the Kemp Howe site9 and in a trench under Heslerton, Barrow VI.¹⁰ Simply to derive Heslerton Ware from Grimston Ware is clearly taking a too elementary view of a position which is far more complex. Both types of pottery are found in associations datable to the Middle and Late Neolithic, with the Grimston Ware, the fine bowls of the Grimston Long Barrow, datable to the Middle Neolithic softened in profile to the Craike Hill and Kemp Howe bowls of the Late Neolithic. The Heslerton Ware of the Middle Neolithic site of Beacon

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¹ Mortimer Collection, Hull.

² Information from Mr. R. H. Hayes.

³ Greenwell, op. cit., p. 162, fig. 101; Brit. Mus. 79. 12-9. 118.

⁴ Smith, 'Late Beaker Pottery from the Lyonesse Surface and the Date of the Transgression', 11th Ann. Rep. Inst. of Arch. (1955), pp. 29-42.

⁵ Savory, op. cit., p. 226.

⁶ Excavated by J. W. Moore. Unpublished, Scarborough Museum.

⁷ Piggott, op. cit., pp. 115-16.

⁸ Ibid., pp. 116-17.

⁹ Newbigin, op. cit., p: 206, fig. 2, 4.

¹⁰ Greenwell, op. cit., p. 143; Newbigin, op. cit., pp. 209-10.

Hill is too fragmentary for any distinct features to be recognized to differentiate it from the rest of the Heslerton Ware. In view of this it would be unwise to speculate on a separate origin for the Heslerton Ware until more evidence is forthcoming.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The writer wishes to record his thanks to Messrs. C. & E. Grantham of Driffield for placing the finds and records of the Craike Hill excavation at his disposal. Acknowledgement is also made to Mr. J. B. Fay, Director of Hull Museums, for permission to publish the Rinyo-Clacton sherd from Callis Wold.

APPENDIX

Flint Implements from the North Side of Craike Hill

"The flint finds from the north side of Craike Hill consist of 7 cores, 118 flakes, and 10 scrapers (fig. 9).

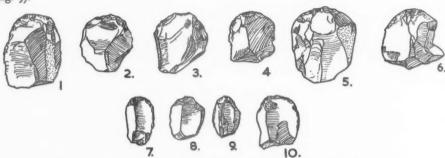


Fig. 9. Flint scrapers from the north side of Craike Hill (1).

- 1. Convex scraper, 1 wn flint, patinated grey-blue, part of cortex remaining. Shallow flaking.
- 2. Convex scraper, brown flint. Coarse flaking.
- 3. Convex scraper, white with grey-blue patches. Coarse flaking.
- 4. Convex scraper, brown flint, speckled grey-blue. Coarse flaking.
- 5. Convex scraper, white Wold flint, part of the cortex remaining.
- 6. Convex scraper, pinkish white flint.
- 7. Small end scraper, brown flint with white patina.
- 8. Small end scraper, grey calcined flint.
- 9. Small end scraper, brown flint. Shallow flaking.
- 10. Convex scraper, brown flint with a slightly whitish patina.



NOTES

A Roman pastrycook's mould from Silchester.—Mr. George C. Boon, F.S.A., sends the following note: The mould here illustrated (with cast, pl. xxv) was found during the Silchester excavations of the Society of Antiquaries, 1890–1909. It consists of a pat of clay, probably of local origin, from 0.4 to 0.7 in. thick, which has been pressed by hand over a model and lightly fired

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The decoration is disposed within a plain, double-beaded border 3.7 in. in outer, and 3.2 in. in inner, diameter. About a quarter of the scene is missing, but all essential parts remain. The subject is a group of four figures—or rather, two pairs standing vis-à-vis—around a tripod-bowl. To describe this scene from the cast,³ the right-hand pair is male and bearded, and both figures wear draperies reaching to the knee or just below. The left-hand pair comprises a man similarly arrayed, and, on his inner or left side, a woman with an elaborate coiffure. This pair is shorter than the other (2.2, as opposed to 2.4 in.). The male figures all extend their right hands to the tripod; those on left and right appear to hold rounded objects, while the central male appears to have dropped something into the bowl, for his hand is empty and open. Behind the group stand three vexilla, of which the flags alone are visible, except for the uppermost stave-medallions of the

left-hand and central examples.

It is obvious that the scene portrays persons of Antonine or Severan times; but before attempting a closer examination, it will be as well to consider moulds of similar sort found elsewhere, and the use to which such moulds were put. No other British example of such a circular mould is known to the writer: certain other moulds (Corbridge, London, Kettering, Stibbington)4 are oval and do not bear scenes of a similar sort. On the Continent, however, especially in the former Balkan provinces of the Empire, parallels are not uncommon, and have been listed by A. Alföldi.5 His specimens may be divided into four classes: (a) with representations of imperial personages; (b) with other references to the emperor; (c) religious; and (d) trivia. It has long been understood that such circular moulds appertained to the Roman pastrycook or confectioner, and were used for making fancy cakes or sweetmeats. This ascription is possibly confirmed by Alfoldi's no. 43,7 which has DVLCiarius (confectioner) scratched on its rim; although some moulds bear personal names, and this may be another of them. 8 Like their modern counterparts, the chocolate medallions on sale at jubilee- or coronation-time, cakes moulded from groups (a) and (b) were prepared for particular occasions of public festivity, such as the celebration of imperial vota, or victories.9 Group (c) may have been connected with religious festivals, whilst (d) was no doubt of everyday application.

On grounds of style and subject-matter, the best of the moulds listed by Alföldi may be said to correspond with the great vogue of the Roman medallion in date and were, perhaps, its popular counterpart in the same way that the chocolate medallions are a counterpart of the medallions

1 No further details seem to exist.

² The fabric contains well-rounded grains of yellow, miłky, and clear quartz, which may well have been derived from the Reading Beds. A fragment of lamellibranch shell is unfortunately too small to be of assistance in determining the origin of the material. (I am indebted to Mr. A. Tynan, lately Asst. Keeper of Geology at the National Museum of Wales, for this information.)

³ It will be appreciated that, in the state of the impression, not all the features described in the text may be visible on the photographs. In many cases, prolonged study of the object, in all lightings, was necessary before certain points could be cleared up.

Arch. Ael. ser. 3, vi, 224-5, figs. 6, 6A; J.R.S., xxix, 208, pl. 29; unpubl.

⁵ Lauriae Aquincenses, i, 312 ff. (Diss. Pann., ser. 2, x, 1938).

6 Alföldi, p. 312, gives refs.

⁷ p. 337; pl. LVII, 3a-b.

⁸ p. 331, no. 23, MANlius; pp. 335-6, no. 40, CERA, &c.

9 pp. 335-6, no. 40, pl. LII; pp. 337-8, no. 43, pl. LVII, 3a-b.

struck on important occasions today. With the unofficial standard of portraiture in question, there was no doubt the same kind of approximation to accuracy in the representation of personal features then, as now: sometimes good, often bad. Several of the moulds show recognizable portraits of members of the imperial house, although in somewhat standardized settings, which are now difficult to refer to the precise occasion for which they were intended. The fact of their existence, however, encourages the further elucidation of the Silchester specimen.

For example, Alföldi's no. 91 shows a salutatio imperatoria with M. Aurelius, and probably Commodus, on a daïs with soldiers in front; no. 10 (completed by the fortuitous preservation of the actual stamp from which it was made) shows Aurelius on horseback, springing over fallen barbarians; no. 11 shows a pair of emperors shaking hands: one is Verus, and the other, imperfect, must be Aurelius in consequence. This mould is inscribed CONCOrdiae AVGV storum. These three come from the 'potters' quarter' of Budapest-Aquincum. Another, no. 22, from Szörny-Brigetio, shows an excellently modelled equestrian portrait of Aurelius.

The Silchester mould is unfortunately a very bad impression; but here and there, where the clay has come cleanly away from the model, enough detail remains to show that the figures were originally very strongly characterized, and accordingly meant to be recognizable as individuals. Moreover, the vexilla preclude any but an imperial connotation. The mould can therefore be classified with those cited above2 and, with the exercise of due caution, an attempt at the identification of the figures can plausibly be made. The first requisite is a closer dating than that given above, for which the woman's coiffure is the best guide.

Within the Antonine and Severan periods, when male hair-dressing approximated to that here shown, feminine styles were in a state of reversion from the piled coiffures of an earlier age. The transition can be seen in the case of Faustina II.3 Preference was now for variously waved styles drawn back into a chignon from the natural hair-line, and thus leaving the ears more or less exposed.4 The present coiffure is, however, different, and approaches more the 'tea-cosy' third-century style. The hair, drawn downward, is dressed in tight horizontal waves close to the side of the head, with a looped braid at the back, and topped by a stephane. The ears are not visible. The first empresses to favour a style concealing the ears, i.e. down-drawn, appear to have been the wife and daughter of Didius Julianus (A.D. 193).5 The fashion did not, however, reach its peak of development until Julia Domna, wife of Severus,6 and thereafter declined, so that even Plautilla, not to mention the female relatives of Elagabalus, tended to favour styles in which the hair, although still tightly waved, was drawn back, not down, and left the ears exposed.7 There may have been some slight physical defect which caused Domna to adopt so unflattering a style, for even in portraits not of the 'developed' type especial care seems to have been taken to ensure the covering of the ears.8 At all events, the coiffure shown on the mould can be most exactly compared with that of Domna, and not so well or so easily with that of another empress. So much as can be seen of the forehead, eye-sockets, and nose of the personage also encourages this attribution.

If correct, the pair of male figures on the right must be Septimius Severus and his elder son, Caracalla. It may be noted that the imperfect figure, on the extreme right, presents facial traits recalling those of Severus—short nose, deep-set eyes, and beard hanging in ringlets. 10 Four small

¹ pp. 328 ff., 331, for these; pls. xLVIII-L.

² It is perhaps noteworthy that Alföldi, pls. XLVIII et seqq. shows examples with the same kind of bordering as appears on the present specimen.

³ Cohen, Médailles impériales, 2nd ed., iii, pp. 155 (early), 150 (late).

Ibid., pp. 216 (Lucilla), 386 (Crispina).

⁵ Ibid., pp. 402-3.

⁶ Roman Imperial Coinage, 1v, i, p. 63, dates this style to c. 206-11.

⁷ Cohen, iv, pp 247, 249 (Plautilla), 376 ff. for later empresses.

⁸ Ibid., p. 107, lower fig., p. 115.

⁹ Ibid., pp. 111, 116, 123-4, 125.

¹⁰ Ibid., pp. 16, &c.

impressions at the broken edge, showing up well in the photograph, are not of the shape required for curly locks of hair, and clearly represent four leaves of a laurel-wreath. This figure, it may also be observed, stands in the fore-front of the group.

His companion has curly hair and a short beard, angular brows and a nose probably also short; but while such traits are consonant with those of Caracalla, they are not so distinctive as those of the other two figures so far described. Although, at first sight, the figure appears to be shown tête-nue, what is probably a trace of a laurel-wreath can be discerned on close inspection at the top and back of the head.

Of the remaining male figure, on the extreme left, no very plain detail is preserved. He seems to be bearded; and there is again a slight indication of a laurel-wreath: two small impressions appear to project beyond the general line of the head, and to continue across the head towards the neck, at the back of which two irregularities in the field may represent ties. The head, as a whole, is rounded, and large in proportion to the body, as of a youth. It is thus not unlikely that the personage shown is Geta.²

It remains to consider the nature of the scene. Before it became apparent that the woman was Domna, it was thought that the scene might be an imperial marriage-ceremony of Antonine date.³ This depended on the supposition, almost certainly wrong, that the left-hand figures were clasping hands.⁴ A stumbling-block to this theory lay in the absence of the bridal veil; and indeed the absence of veiling, in the case of male and female alike, probably rules out any possibility that a solemn sacrificial rite, of civil type,⁵ is portrayed. The vexilla suggest that a military connexion is to be sought, or at least that the scene was one of significance to the army, although the three emperors are not shown wearing armour. Professor J. M. C. Toynbee, F.S.A., has pointed out to me that the dress of the three males is not the toga, which, in Severan times, was worn at footlength, but probably semi-military and composed of tunic and sagum (cloak). Something of the shoulder-gathering of such a garment can be seen in the case of Geta, as well as a long fold down his back.

The right-hand pair, Severus and Caracalla, are shown as equal in height and therefore, by Roman medallic convention, as equal in status. The scene must accordingly date from A.D. 198, being the year in which Caracalla was named Augustus, or later; moreover, as Caracalla and Geta are both bearded, it is evident that it must belong to the joint reign of the three Augusti, A.D. 209-11. Neither is shown bearded, and Geta is not shown laurelled, before this date. By the same token, the other pair is of lesser importance. Now, since Geta is shown facing the other two emperors—being presented to them, as it were, by Domna—it is conceivable that the scene portrays his actual elevation to the rank of Augustus in 209. The semi-military dress affected by the male figures would explain the absence of the veil in the act of commemorative sacrifice upon which they are perhaps engaged; and the vexilla underline the military importance of such an occasion.

But, on the other hand, the event was not formally of military significance, and the simple imagery of medallions at this period demands that a more obviously military occasion be sought. Given the dating above, it appears not improbable (as suggested to me by Professor Toynbee) that the scene shows a sacrificial thanksgiving on the occasion of a victory in the British war of

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¹ Ibid., pp. 185, &c.

² Ibid., p. 277.

³ Roman Silchester (1957), p. 127.

⁴ By the rite of confarreatio, in which special cakes were burnt; it was thought that the right-hand male figure held such a cake. Marriages, or rather married persons, as shown on coins, are represented as standing well apart and clearly clasp-

ing hands; usually with a concordia-legend. Cf. Cohen, iv, pp. 247, 381, 384, 487.

⁵ e.g. saecularia sacra, Cohen, iv, p. 272.

⁶ BMC Roman Empire, v, pls. 53-62; RIC, 1v, i, 212 ff., 314 ff. Cohen quotes a coin from Vaillant (iv, p. 253, no. 1) with a laurelled Gaesar-bust of Geta, but it is probably false.

Severus. The presence of Domna in the group—she is called Mater Castrorum on an inscription from Silchester itself-is fully consonant with this interpretation, for she accompanied her husband to Britain. The fact that this mould, with an apparently British annotation, was discovered on an important Roman-British site may not perhaps be entirely fortuitous.2

I am indebted to the Duke of Wellington, F.S.A., for permission to publish this item (no. 03718) from the Silchester Collection at Reading Museum; to the Director of the Museum, Mr. T. L. Gwatkin; and to Professor Toynbee for helpful comment.

Further Anglo-Saxon inlay.—Miss Vera I. Evison, F.S.A., contributes the following: At about the same time as the appearance in this Journal3 of a study of Anglo-Saxon inlaid metalwork, two articles on continental work were published which are significant in connexion with our earliest examples of the technique. The discussion by Professor Werner of Frankish fifth-century swords called attention to the fact that these are closely connected to the Bifrons buckle type by the trelliswork wire patterns on their scabbard strap-slides. 4 M. Dasnoy described and illustrated inlaid objects from the region of Namur in Belgium, including the iron buckle with rectangular silver plate in repoussé from Eprave, which had been newly cleaned.⁵ This bears the Christian design of a vase flanked by two peacocks, which occurs on three other buckle plates, all of continental origin, from Envermeu,6 Kärlich,7 and Lavoye.8 The relationship of these plates to other objects covered with repoussé bronze in Christian motifs was realized by Leeds, and has since received further attention by Werner. 10 Of special bearing on this kind of buckle is the group of plated wooden vessels, such as the Long Wittenham stoup, and the nucleus of their find-spots is situated in France north of the Seine. II However, the existence of a bronze mould used in making this type of plate at Roussent (Pas-de-Calais), is one of the factors which prompt Werner to suggest that they are the work of travelling craftsmen. The Roussent matrix has a particular claim to relationship with the Bifrons buckle plate, for in the representation of Daniel in the Lions' Den, there is the same curious addition of two birds above the two lions. 12

Apart from the Bifrons plate, three others have been found in England; one from Alfriston, Grave 24,13 has a central panel of trellis with birds pecking grapes in a tendril border, but the designs on the plates from High Down¹⁴ and Alfriston, Grave 20, 15 are not clearly visible. A plate from Broadstairs, however, recently recognized by Mr. G. C. Dunning as belonging to this

¹ CIL, vii, 7: IVLIAE AVG / MATRI SE / NATVS ET / CASTROR / M SABINIVS / VICTOR OB / ----/. Cf. also Dessau, 442-4.

² The British war reached its climax in 210, in which year coins with Victory types, and obverse inscription BRITannicus, appeared (RIC 332 ff., &c., of Severus; 202b, 203, &c. of Caracalla, and 91 f., &c., of Geta). Perhaps a trophy, or captives, or a representation of Victory, would be more appropriate to the conclusion of the campaign than the scene shown on the Silchester mould, which may accordingly refer to a slightly earlier occasion.

³ Ant. Journ. xxxv, 20.
4 J. Werner, 'Zu fränkischen Schwerten des 5 Jahrhunderts', Germania, 31, pp. 38-44.

⁵ A. Dasnoy, 'Les premières damasquinures mérovingiennes de la région namuroise', Annales de la Société archéologique de Namur, xlvii, 267-86. X-ray photographs and cleaning combined have

revealed an extension of the plate with two rectangular apertures bordered by traces of inlaid wires.

Ibid., pl. 1, 4. 7 Ibid., pl. 1. 3.

J. Werner, op. cit., p. 40; G. Chenet, La Céramique Gallo-Romaine d'Argonne au IVe siècle (1941), p. 116, n. 3.

⁹ E. T. Leeds, Early Anglo-Saxon Art and Archaeology (1936), pp. 14-19.

¹⁰ Archaeologica Belgica, 34, pp. 316-19.

¹¹ Ibid., fig. 29.

¹² G. Chenet, 'La tombe 319 et la buire chrétienne du cimetière mérovingien de Lavoye (Meuse), Préhistoire, iv (1935), fig. 29.

¹³ Ant. Journ. xxxv, pl. vid.

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 39, No. 20. There may have been no pattern on this plate for there is no trace of one on a radiograph made recently.

¹⁵ Ibid., p. 37, No. 14.

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Pottery mould from Silchester (left), and (right) cast from it. AA, laurel wreaths. B, drapery of cloak (sagum). About 1

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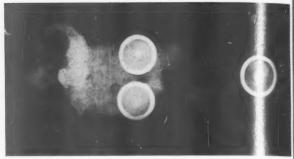
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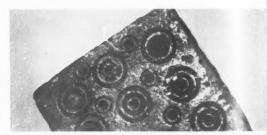
a. Radiograph of iron buckle, Mitcham, Grave 29 (1/1)



 δ. Radiograph of iron buckle, unknown provenan Ashmolean Museum, Oxford (¹/₁)



c. Bronze buckle-plate, Croydon (1/1)



d. Enlargement of c showing inlay $\binom{9}{1}$



e. Strap-end, Croydon (1)



f. Bronze buckle and belt plate, Cowslip Wood, Bekesbourne (1)



g, h. Bronze sword pommel, Grove Ferry, Wickham, Kent (1)

group, proves to be a variant of the peacocks-and-vase type. A silver sheet 1.65 in. by 1.1 in. (in bad condition because of the action of rust) is fastened by means of a disc-headed rivet in each corner to a double iron plate below (fig. 1). A rectangular central panel has a border of triangles with lobed apices along the two longer sides. The panel design is obscure in the centre, but an oval shape on each side, with double lines radiating from it to the corners, obviously represents the body and tail of a peacock even more formalized than those gracing the plates at Envermeu

and Eprave. The impressed lines show the ragged edge of triangles base to apex common to both the repoussé and inlaid work of the time. Also with this plate was part of an iron buckle tongue and some fragments of wood with two bronze dome-heads, no doubt from rivets which may have been part of the belt. In the same grave was the well-known claw-beaker, together with two small pairs of tweezers, two small ring brooches, and a black and white glass bead. The glass beaker is in the earliest stage of the development of its type, and both glass and buckle independently confirm each other's dating to the last half of the fifth century.

Nevertheless, the excessive formalization of the birds in the central panel is indicative of a stage further from classical sources than that shown by the other plates of this kind. Moreover, the place of the classical vine border has been usurped by a typically Germanic frieze of triangles with encircled apices, such as may be found on many objects of the migration period. In a similar way, the Bifrons buckle plate with its Daniel picture was given a Germanic border of a

Amongst the very early objects with 'naturalistic' animal ornament, like the Alfriston bronze buckle, mention should be made of the disc brooch from Faversham which still retains part of the silver sheeting originally covering the animal figures. Its central stone of blue glass en cabochon with

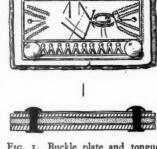


Fig. 1. Buckle plate and tongue from Broadstairs (1).

silver collar shows the familiarity of the craftsman with late Roman techniques, a characteristic which belongs to the whole group. As to another piece in this tradition, the Bishopstone plaque, 7 there is no plating left, but it was obviously there originally, for each of the animals is delineated in the usual way with a double contour of which the inner one is the heavier for the fixing of the silver sheet.

¹ Ibid., p. 23, n. 3; in repoussé, Envermeu, A. Dasnoy, op. cit., pl. 1, 4, inlay-High Down, Ant. Journ. xxxv, pl. vi, d.

² W. A. Thorpe, English Glass (1935), pl. xa. Dark Age Britain (1956), D. B. Harden, 'Glass vessels in Britain and Ireland, A.D. 400-1000', pp. 139 and 159.

3 P.S.A. xxiii, 273.

⁴ B. Salin, Die germanischen Thierornamentik, pp. 158-60. For examples on early square-headed brooches, see E. T. Leeds, A Corpus of Early Anglo-Saxon Great Square-headed Brooches (1949), figs. S. 5, S. 6, S. 7, 53, 71.

⁵ Since the above was written, a similar buckle with kidney-shaped loop from Normée (Marne) has been noticed at Épernay museum. The border triangles are without circles and the peacocks' tails end in four ringlets. The drawing in L. Coutil, Archéologie gauloise, gallo-romaine, franque et carolingienne II, opp. p. 98, No. 50 seems to be a plate with tendrils (from St. Pierre-du-Vauvray), probably the silver plate on iron I-8 in. × I-I in. in Louviers Museum.

6 B.M. Anglo-Saxon Guide, fig. 38.

⁷ E.T. Leeds, Early Anglo-Saxon Art and Archaeology, pl. 111c.

An iron buckle loop from Mitcham cemetery, Grave 29, is kidney-shaped with its upper surface shelving like the loop from Horton Kirby, and an X-ray reveals that it is inlaid with transverse wires (pl. xxvi, a). The flat tongue is a replacement and not inlaid. In the same grave² was a disc brooch, part of a quoit brooch, knife, bronze belt fittings, a ferrule, nail, and a gilt-bronze pin with two glass beads pendant from a loop in the head. In form this pin resembles one from Gilton3 which also has a segmented shaft and domed head, one from Alfriston, Grave 65,4 and one from Rhenen, Holland, which was found in a grave of about A.D. 400.5

From the nearby cemetery of Croydon which contained some inlaid objects, come two more articles associated with the group. One is a rectangular bronze buckle plate 1.8 in. by 1 in., the corner rivet holes with traces of rust suggesting fixture to an iron back plate; the front is ornamented by three rows of circle-and-dot motif, with rows of smaller circles in between; traces of inlay, possibly of silver wire, are visible in the circular grooves (pl. xxvi, c and d).6 The other object is a strap-end (pl. xxvi, e) of a shape very similar to the inlaid one from Chessel Down.7 It is very worn, and the presence of animal heads at the edge is only indicated by two perforations corresponding to the depressions between and behind the jaws on the Chessel Down piece. Traces of a tendril design are visible and parallel scratches on the surface might possibly indicate rustication for reception of plate inlay.

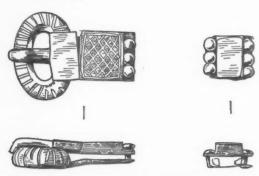


Fig. 2. Bronze buckle and mount from Cowslip Wood, Bekesbourne, Kent (1).

Two other buckles result from recent excavations. One of iron from Lyminge, Grave 29,8 was decorated with bronze wires on the tongue. Its kidney-shaped loop and rectangular plate are much the same as those from Great Chesterford, but the details of inlay are not yet known as at the time of publication they had been neither cleaned nor X-rayed. The only other object found with it was a knife.

The other buckle comes from the cemetery at Cowslip Wood, Bekesbourne, Kent (fig. 2, pl. xxv1).10 It is made of bronze, 1.45 in. long, and the outer surface of the oval loop is inlaid with silver wires in parallel transverse lines. The tongue is undecorated save for a silver plate

- 1 Ant. Journ. xxxv, pl. Iva.
- 2 R. E. M. Wheeler, London and the Saxons, Grave 29, pp. 129-31, fig. 14.
- 3 J. Brent, Canterbury in Olden Time (1879), pl. 2, 4.
- 4 Sussex A.C. lvi, pl. viii, 6.
- 5 P. Glazema and J. Ypey, Merovingische Ambachtskunst (1956), pl. 22.
- 6 G. Baldwin Brown, The Arts in Early England, iii, pl. LII, 8, but the material of the plate is here wrongly described as bone.

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- ⁷ Ant. Journ. xxxv, pl. vIII, a. ⁸ A. Warhurst, Arch. Cant, lxix, pl. 1x, 4.
- 9 Ant. Journ. xxxv, pl. 111g.
- 10 Excavated by Mr. Frank Jenkins, F.S.A., who has very generously allowed publication here.

entirely covering its rectangular base. The small rectangular plate is covered with a trellis pattern of inlaid silver wires; at the farther end the plate sinks to a lower level and is pierced by three silver dome-headed rivets fastening it on to the back plate which is a continuation of the front plate bent over the loop. A separate rectangular plate, 0.55 in. long, has a middle silver panel similar to that on the base of the tongue; on two sides the plate sinks to a lower level and is fastened by three silver rivets to a back plate. Mr. Jenkins tells me that another similar mounting found nearby probably belongs to the same belt. Associations were limited to a knife.

The rectangular-based tongue had already made its appearance in the fifth century, as may be seen from the inlaid iron buckles, and just as early are the use of plate inlay and the trelliswork pattern. This arrangement of wires occurs on buckle loops, on one rectangular plate in the Diergardt collection and on scabbard strap-slides. Werner, however, shows that the finest and neatest versions of this pattern occur on the earliest objects, and it becomes simpler and coarser by the time it is used on Alamannic sword scabbards of the sixth century. I Impressive though the Bekesbourne buckle is, the trellis pattern is slightly ragged and irregular, and much coarser than the closely knit type to be found on the Bifrons loop, for example. Moreover, the type of belt mount with borders that sink to a lower plane to accommodate rivets of a decorative nature are to be found to a large extent among the cloisonné jewellery of the seventh century, although the form no doubt began earlier. On these grounds, it seems that the Bekesbourne buckle was made during the course of the sixth century. If this is so, and if it is English work, it provides a link between the early inlaid bronzes and the later buckle from St. John's, Cambridge.

Turning to weapons, new examples in inlay have been noticed in this field also. A spear from Greetwell, Lincs., has bronze bands inlaid on its socket and on the iron ring binding the socket.2 Leeds recognized its close similarity of form, i.e. a double-plane blade with ringed and pronged socket, to one found in a cemetery at Nassington, Northants.,3 but in spite of that the inlay technique suggested to him a Christian date. If it is now accepted that this technique was in use throughout the pagan period, there can no longer be any doubt about the date of the Greetwell

A socket fragment from the cemetery at Finglesham, Kent, is encircled with wire bands, one of which seems to be plaited. Similarly, on a spear from Petersfinger, Grave XX,4 there are five bands of metal inlaid at even intervals round the base of the socket; a sixth band, nearest to the blade, consists of two or more wires of a denser metal twisted together (pl. XXVII, a). The other objects in the grave include a sword, shield-boss, and zoomorphic buckle of the mid-sixth century. One spear from Baginton, Warwicks., has three bands encircling the junction of blade and socket, (pl. xxvII, b), and another from Baginton shows the familiar circle-and-dot motif in different metals on its blade (pl. xxvII, c). The seventh-century spear from Holborough, Kent, opens new vistas with a rune or mystic symbol.5

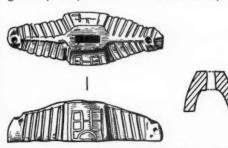


Fig. 3. Bronze sword pommel from Grove Ferry, Wickham, Kent (1).

¹ J. Werner, Germania, 31, p. 40.

2 Lines. Arch. and Arch. Soc., N.s. v, 81, fig. 1, 4.

Ant. Journ. xxiv, pl. xxix, a.

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⁴ E. T. Leeds, and H. de S. Shortt, An Anglo-Saxon Cemetery at Petersfinger (1953), fig. 6, pl. 11. I am grateful to Mr. Shortt, who noticed traces of bronze on the socket and kindly sent the spear for

⁵ V. I. Evison, 'An Anglo-Saxon Cemetery at Holborough, Kent', Arch. Cant. lxx, 97, fig. 7 and A Frankish import may be recognized in the bronze sword pommel inlaid with silver wires from Grove Ferry, Wickham, Kent¹ (fig. 3, pl. xxvi, f, g). It is of Behmer's Type VIII, which is limited to central Europe, and it was probably made in the middle of the seventh century. A pommel of an earlier stage of development, similarly inlaid, but with the zoomorphic nature of the terminals still evident, comes from Steindorf, Bavaria.²

An iron buckle in the Sir John Evans collection at the Ashmolean Museum³ has a long triangular plate with three round cells over the rivets, each with a silver collar encircled by two strands of beaded wire. These most likely held a paste gem *en cabochon*, although a metal dome often appears in this context and is also possible. There is a trace of inlaid gold wire in one corner, and the radiograph (pl. xxvi, b) shows an all-over inlay in imitation cell-work style, the most distinctive motif being that of a semicircle containing a T-shaped cell which occurs on each shoulder. Similar continental examples exist.⁴

The new material which has come to hand is varied in character and ranges from the Broadstairs buckle at the very beginning of the pagan period to the Holborough spearhead at the end. The Grove Ferry pommel is a reminder that inlaid work was occasionally imported from abroad, but the growing bulk of objects spread over the entire period, and the undoubted insular character of a number of them, supports the view that the craft was steadily carried on in pagan Anglo-Saxon England.

Acknowledgements: I have to thank Miss E. Meikle for the drawings, Mr. M. White, Birkbeck College, for the X-ray of the Mitcham buckle, the Ministry of Works Laboratory for radiographs of the spearheads, and Messrs. Kodak Ltd. for the X-ray prints. Permission to publish objects has been kindly granted by the following: Broadstairs Public Library; Royal Museum, Canterbury; Croydon Public Library; Coventry Museum; London Museum; Ashmolean Museum, Oxford; and Salisbury, S. Wilts., and Blackmore Museum. Museum visits were facilitated by a grant from the University of London Central Research Fund.

The toothed blades from Chalton.—Dr. A. Roes sends the following note: Mr. S. S. Frere, F.S.A., recently published six small bronze blades ending in from three to seven teeth: they had been found at Chalton in a late Roman pot.⁵ His attention had already been called to an article of mine in which I published nine examples of the same kind of tool, most of them found in Frisia.⁶ I have discovered others since. On the isle of Schouwen, Holland, a triangular blade has been found.⁷ Then there is a complete one in the museum in Liège, Belgium, and another one in Strasbourg, France. The museum of Angers has four specimens, one of which is shown in fig. 1. In the Rouen Museum I saw two others. All these specimens have from six to nine teeth; they have socketted handles and differ but slightly in shape and in size.

But the most interesting specimens I discovered in the British Museum. They come from a private collection in Mâcon, in the east of France (pl. xxvIII, a). Their teeth are almost completely worn away. In two of them the socket is hexagonal on the outside but round inside. Their most

¹ P.S.A. xv, 178.

² E. Behmer, Das zweischneidige Schwert (1939), Taf. Lx, 4.

³ Reg. No. 1909.563, provenance unknown.

⁴ J. Werner, Das alamannische Gräberfeld von Bulach (1953), a buckle from Kaiseraugst, Taf. XXX, 2, and ibid. Das alamannische Gräberfeld von Mindelheim (1955), a counter-plate, Taf. 21,

^{124, 2}a. Both have the semicircle and T-cell motif, and belong to the seventh century.

⁵ Antiq. Journ. xxxvii (1957), p. 219 s. and pl. xxvi, a.

⁶ Berichten Rijksdienst Oudheidk. Bodemonderzoek, 1953, p. 31 and pl. 1v, 4.

⁷ Op. cit., 1955, pl. xi, 18.

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a. Petersfinger, Grave XX.

b. Baginton

c. Baginton



a. Bronze tools in the British Museum $(\frac{1}{1})$



6. Roman bronze statuette from Canterbury $\binom{1}{1}$

remarkable feature are the animal heads between the handle and the blade. Moreover, two of them have a floral pattern on the blade. Both particulars incline me to attribute them to the Carolingian period, but some of the others may be earlier.

Two small bronze objects from the Forêt de Compiègne, ending in a tang instead of a socket, were published in a very useful French article on Roman tools and implements a long time ago. Their rounded blades end in a row of short teeth. It was suggested by Mr. Champion, the author of the article, that they might have been used for dressing plaster on a wall. But the smallest is only some 2 in. across, and their rounded blade would not be convenient for this purpose either. Mr. Salomon Reinach² may have found the right solution when he said that they were used in sewing leather: their short teeth could make a row of points which served to facilitate the even spacing of the stitches.

Another Roman bronze statuette.—Mr. E. J. W. Hildyard, F.S.A., contributes the following: The publication by Miss M. V. Taylor, F.S.A., of the horse and rider statuette found at Brigstock (Northants.), prompts me to call attention to an analogous specimen, attributed to Canterbury, which I obtained some years ago from our late Fellow, Dr. P. Nelson.



Fig. 1. Bronze tool, Angers Museum $(\frac{1}{1})$.

The present specimen (pl. XXVIII, b) is somewhat smaller, the horse from head to tail and the height from the crest of the rider's helmet to the bar on which the horse's feet rest, being in both cases exactly 2 in.

Although identical in subject and in most details with the Brigstock statuette this specimen is very different in style and treatment. The latter is far from the classicism of the other example or of the Caves Inn horseman⁴ but belongs to the recognizable barbarous British style seen in such objects as the Brough⁵ or Woodeaton⁶ sceptre heads. It is not only crude in execution, but naturalistic accuracy is deliberately disregarded, the legs of both horse and rider being shortened out of all proportion to their heads and bodies. The difference in treatment consists in the casting of both figures in one, instead of as separate objects, and the attachment of the horse's feet to a flat bar also cast with the whole piece.

The Brigstock specimen seems in rather poor condition and both the rider's arms are broken off, but the present example helps partly to reconstruct the missing parts.

Miss Taylor's suggestion of a shield in the left hand is confirmed by the circular shield with central boss of the Canterbury rider, but his right arm is pierced with circular holes, one just below the elbow, the other through his hand. As to what fitted into these holes it is difficult to say, but they seem too large to have held reins and there is no sign that these were ever attached to the horse's mouth or in any other way. I do not think, incidentally, that the Brigstock rider held reins in his right hand as they appear to be resting on his horse's neck. The holes in our specimen seem more suitable to a substantial lance or spear, but why there should be two, one below the other, is not apparent. Both riders wear the usual cavalry type helmet, but the Canterbury rider has no cloak, and bands (presumably representing leather equipmer) pass over his shoulders and cross on breast and back. The same method is used to represent the bridle and bands from the saddle over the horse's hind-quarters passing under his tail. The latter drops

¹ Rev. Arch., 1916, i, pl. xiv, 15893, 29059 and

² Cat. ill. du Musée des Antiq. nationales, i², 1926, 284.

³ Antiq. Journ. xxxvii, 71, pl. xviii. ⁴ J.R.S. xliii (1953), 118, pl. xxiii.

⁵ Antiq. Journ. xviii, pls. xxx and xxxi.

⁶ Oxoniensa, xiv (1949), pl. IV.

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vertically from a right angle in the same way as the Brigstock specimen, but this one is less well finished, having signs of a half-hearted attempt to chisel out the bronze left in the casting between hind-quarter and tail, which still remain joined.

As has been seen, the animal's legs have been shortened to half their natural length though some attempt is made to portray the hooves. The bar to which the figure is attached is $\frac{2}{10}$ in, wide with the undersurface flat. Finally, the Canterbury specimen provides support for Miss Taylor's suggestion that these statuettes were attached, 'to some object such as a pole', a notion that had also occurred to me. While the other specimen has a fragment of a pin beneath the horse's belly, this one has a substantial pin which has passed through a hole, $\frac{1}{8}$ in. in diameter in the base and has been broken off inside it. It protrudes upwards an unknown length into the horse's belly. Barbarous though he is, our horseman is certainly intended to be a Roman cavalryman.

Although the two statuettes are very different in some respects, the close correspondence in detail makes it clear that they form a definite class of object, almost certainly attached to a pole or wand, and probably of a votive, or, possibly, of an official character.

Titchfield Church and the Roman gateways of Portchester.—Mr. E. M. Jope, F.S.A., contributes the following note: A subscript to the note on the east gate of Portchester Castle¹ comes from a recent survey of building stones used in Saxon work in southern Britain. As pointed out by Dr. R. M. Butler, the angles and the west arch of the tower of Titchfield church are built of large blocks of green sandstone and of brown ironstone. In this it is unusual, for nearly all the numerous examples of Saxon masonry over a wide area round the Hampshire Basin have dressings of a very characteristic broken shell limestone, which as Dr. Butler notes, is used for the Norman work in Portchester Castle. A few pieces of it are incorporated in the rubble walling at Titchfield: there are only a very few pieces of it in the jambs of the west arch of the tower and none at all in the arch itself or in the quoins. This contrast between the stone used at Titchfield and that of the other Saxon work in the region thus supports Dr. Butler's contention that this work incorporates some of the dressed stone from a Roman gate at Portchester.

This broken shell limestone, or shell-brash, is light and corky in texture (though more compact when tufaceous), soft and easily cut when fresh, but weathering to a hard resistant surface; it is a most beautiful stone. Nearly all the characteristic pilaster strips of the Saxon churches in the area are made of it (e.g. Corhampton, Tichborne, Little Somborne, Hinton Ampner, Boarhunt, Sompting);² it is used for other dressings at Bosham, Stoughton, and Singleton, and for quoins at Fareham and even at Laverstoke in north Hampshire. It is used in the Saxon churches of the Sussex coastal strip as far east as Lewes. In twelfth-century work it is to be found as far inland as Kingsclere, in the north of Hampshire.

Stone of this characteristic appearance seems to have been obtained from more than one geological formation. Dr. F. W. Anderson (chief palaeontologist, Geological Survey), has kindly examined a number of specimens and has demonstrated from their ostracod assemblages that some may be matched from quarries in the Purbeck Beds at Worth Matravers near Swanage, Dorset.³ This source was also identified for the tufaceous shell-brash of the Chichester panels.⁴ The ashlar of the late eleventh-century transepts of Winchester Cathedral contains much stone of a similar appearance, and as William II gave Bishop Wakelin (1093–8) permission to take

¹ Dr. R. M. Butler, in Antiq. Journ. xxxv (1955), 219-22.

² I am most grateful to Dr. E. A. Johnson for contributing this observation.

³ See *Dark Age Britain* (ed. D. B. Harden,

^{1956),} pp. 253-4, with map.

⁴ Arch. Journ. cx (1954), 118. Similar stone is used in Saxon work at Wareham and some other Dorset churches.

stone from the Isle of Wight quarries, it seems that a shell-brash of similar appearance might come from the Oligocene formation in the Isle of Wight (Bembridge Limestone). It is also seen in later work at Portchester Castle, for which much stone was coming from the Isle of Wight in the later fourteenth century. Further work is in progress on the sources of this stone as seen in Saxon buildings. It does appear to have been brought from the quarries by sea, and its use in Saxon work is largely in the coastal areas though it was carried to some extent inland.

Carved beam at Westbourne church, Sussex: a problem of identification.—Mr. F. W. Steer, F.S. A., contributes the following: The north porch of Westbourne church was almost entirely reconstructed in 1865³ and replaced one built about the middle of the sixteenth century as a protection to the north doorway of c. 1400 which pierces an early thirteenth-century wall.⁴ A carved beam built into the porch is an interesting survival from another structure; it is 7 ft. 11 in. long and 9 in. wide from top to bottom, and supported by another moulded beam of later date. The principal beam has a convex surface heavily, but crudely, carved with symbols to be described below, and it is almost certainly the work of a local craftsman copying from an inferior pattern. About 9 in. have been cut off the eastern end of the beam. The illustration (pl. xxix, 1) shows the pearled upper border of three styles, and the rough cable moulding at the bottom.

In the centre of the beam is a shield of arms, Quarterly, I [Gules] a lion rampant [or], for FitzAlan, Earls of Arundel; 2, [Or] three bars [gules], for FitzAlan, Lords of Bedale; 3, [Argent] a fess and a quarter [gules], for Widvile; 4, Quarterly, I and 4, [Sable] fretty [or], for Maltravers, 2 and 3, [Argent] a chief [azzire], for Clun. The shield is supported, on the dexter side by a griffin passant, and on the sinister by a bagwyn⁵ passant [collared and] chained. Either side of this central feature is a scroll carved with an inscription which is now beyond recognition; on the right-hand scroll are the remains of what appears to be the Maltravers fret. These ribbons are flanked by the running white horse badge of FitzAlan, but the beasts do not carry the usual spray of oak in their mouths. A stiffly carved scroll separates the horse on the right from a carved letter E followed by another scroll; any letter which may have been on the left side has been cut away.

While trying to verify the arms on this beam it was found that although the carving has minor errors of detail, the previous accounts of it are absurdly wrong. The arms of FitzAlan, Earls of Arundel, are well known and comment would be superfluous. The arms on the second quartering, three red bars on a golden shield, are usually attributed to the Northumberland family of Muschamp who bore them in 1249 and 1267. They were also borne by the FitzAlans, Lords of Bedale, although they also used barry of eight or and gules, and thus shown on the Garter stall-plates of William (11th) and Henry (12th) Earls of Arundel in St. George's Chapel, Windsor. Windsor.

I V.C.H. Hants, v (1912), 462. I am most grateful to our Fellow Mr. John Harvey for obtaining specimens of stone from Winchester and for his comments on them. Dr. F. W. Anderson has seen some of this stone, and considers that it could have come from an Isle of Wight source.

² L. F. Salzman, Building in England (1952),

p. 133.
³ Sussex Arch. Coll. xxii, 84.

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4 See plan and description in V.C.H. Sussex, iv

(1953), 130-1.

⁵ See H. Stanford London, F.S.A., 'Minor Monsters: II. The Bagwyn', in The Coat of Arms, iii. 142-4.

⁶ J. H. Mee, Bourne in the Past (1913), p. 189; Sussex Arch. Coll. xxii, 81 and lxxv, 178-9; V.C.H. Sussex, iv (1953), 131.

7 Burke, General Armory (1842).

⁸ See pl. II. Also J. Foster, Some Feudal Coats of Arms (1902), p. 95. The arms on the memorial in the Lumley Chapel, Cheam, to Jane FitzAlan (daughter of Henry, 12th Earl of Arundel) first wife of John, Lord Lumley, include the quartering, barry of eight or and gules, which is attributed to FitzAlan in Surrey Arch. Coll. iii, 328. See also the Russell Heraldic Collections in the library of the Society of Antiquaries, sub FitzAlan.

The numbering used in this paper for the Earls

Sir Brian FitzAlan, Lord of Bedale, died in 1306 leaving two daughters as coheirs; any barony created by writ directed to Sir Brian must, therefore, be deemed as in abeyance. As there was no alliance between the Muschamp and FitzAlan families, it may be safely assumed that the arms

are intended for the Bedale branch of the latter family.

The third quartering, for Widvile or Woodvile, presents no problems. Thomas FitzAlan, 10th Earl of Arundel (1450–1524) married, in 1464, Margaret, second daughter of Richard Widvile, 1st Earl Rivers; she was sister of Elizabeth, the wife of Edward IV. William, 11th Earl of Arundel (son of Thomas and Margaret), as a coheir of his uncle Richard, 3rd and last Earl Rivers who died 6 March 1490/1, would be entitled to add the Widvile arms to his quarter-

ings.

The fourth quartering is explained by the marriage of John de Arundel (died 15 December 1379) and Eleanor, grand-daughter and coheir of John, Lord Maltravers. John de Arundel's son, another John, was Lord Maltravers in right of his mother, and was the father of John FitzAlan, 6th Earl of Arundel (1385–1421). William FitzAlan, Lord of Clun and Oswaldestre, who died in 1210, married Isabel, lady of Clun, daughter and heir of Ingelram de Say, Lord of Oswaldestre. The descent from this marriage and the union with the Earldom of Arundel is given in G. E. C[okayne], Complete Peerage, vol. iii (1913), sub Clun and Oswestry, and in M. A. Tierney, The History and Antiquities of the Castle and Town of Arundel (1834), pedigree between pp. 192 and 193. On the Westbourne beam the Maltravers arms are shown as fretty.

The griffin supporter is an adaptation of the FitzAlan crest (see below) and also occurs on the seal of Richard FitzAlan, 3rd Earl of Arundel (c. 1313–1375/6), while the bagwyn is found as the supporter of the standard of arms probably intended for Thomas, 10th Earl of Arundel.²

On the Garter stall-plate of the 11th Earl are the arms: Quarterly, 1 and 4, FitzAlan, Earls of Arundel; 2, FitzAlan, Lords of Bedale, but shown as Barry of eight or and gules; 3, Maltravers, but shown as Sable a fret or. Crest: Out of a ducal coronet a demi-griffin with wings endorsed and erect argent, armed gules. The absence of the Widvile coat on this stall-plate is a surprising omission when we realize that the 11th Earl had been entitled to it since 1491 and the plate could not have been set up before 1525; that he used the Widvile arms is suggested by the banner attributed to him on p. 45 in the De Walden Library volume mentioned in note 2 below. The arms on the stall-plate (pl. xxix, a)4 of the 12th Earl of Arundel are as at Westbourne except for the addition of the crest (as for the 11th Earl), the horse and bagwyn supporters instead of the griffin and bagwyn, and such minor variations in the arms as have already been noticed. It is a significant fact that the arms on the Westbourne beam are not encircled by the Garter as would surely be the case if their owner was entitled to that distinction.

In attempting to date the Westbourne beam we must remember that the Widvile arms could not have appeared as a quartering of FitzAlan until after March 1490/1 when the last Earl Rivers died. William, 11th Earl of Arundel (c. 1476–1543/4) was not elected a Knight of the Garter until April 1525; his father Thomas, 10th Earl, had died in October 1524. William's

or Arundel follows that adopted as the third alternative given by G.E.C. in *The Complete Peerage*; the man I term the IIth Earl is the 23rd, the 18th or the IIth according to which creation or revival of the title one cares to employ.

¹ See J. Dallaway, A History of the Western Division of the County of Sussex, ii, pt. i (1819),

p. 118.

² Banners Standards and Badges from a Tudor Manuscript in the College of Arms (The De Walden Library, 1904), p. 44; yet another numeration for the Earls of Arundel has been used in this book, and Thomas is given as the 12th instead of the 10th.

3 Also in the tracery of the roof of the crossing in St. George's Chapel; see E. H. Fellowes, *The Knights of the Garter*, 1348-1939, plan following

⁴ I am indebted to the Dean and Canons of Windsor for kindly allowing me to have this stall-plate photographed.



a. Garter stall-plate of Henry, 12th Earl of Arundel (1512-1579/80)
Reproduced by kind permission of the Dean and Canons of Windsor



b. Carved beam in the north porch of Westbourne Church, Sussex

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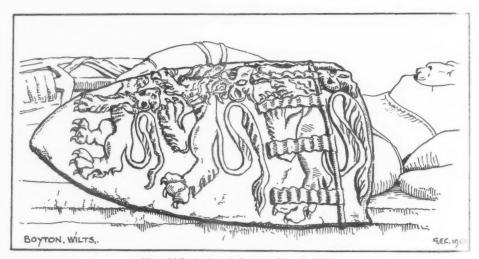
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The Giffard effigy in Boyton Church, Wilts.

first wife was Elizabeth, daughter of Robert, Lord Willoughby de Broke, and the letter E on the beam may well refer to her; she died before 1510/11 when the Earl married Anne, daughter of Henry, 4th Earl of Northumberland.

Assuming that the left-hand portion of the beam (now cut away) carried the letter W, the evidence suggests that the carving was incorporated in an erection by William, 11th Earl of

Arundel, at a date after 1491 and before 1511.1

OURNAL

Giffard Effigy at Boyton, Wilts .- Mr. G. E. Chambers, F.S.A., sends the following note: A late-thirteenth-century tomb in the Church of St. Mary the Virgin, Boyton, bears the recumbent effigy of a knight in mail armour with a large concave shield, curving round the body. From the arms, [gules], three lions passant [argent], and a five-pointed label [azure] (pl. xxx), this seems to represent a member of the Giffard family, perhaps, though this is not certain, Sir Alexander Giffard, a retainer of William Longespée, earl of Salisbury, and one of the few Christians who escaped the slaughter at Mansourah in 1250 (Matthew Paris, Chronica Majora, ed. Luard, v, 156, 168; vi, 198; Bentley's Excerpta Historica, pp. 644 sqq.). The north side of the monument, which shows the shield, is temporarily so obstructed that it is not possible to obtain a satisfactory photograph. Buckler's drawing, reproduced in Colt-Hoare's South Wilts (vol. i, Heytesbury, p. 198) has inaccuracies in the details of the effigy; and the triangular panelling as shown is in fact on the south and not the north side of the tomb. It may be that since Buckler's day the tomb has been dismantled and reassembled with the sides reversed. The drawing in the Wiltshire Archaeological and Natural History Magazine (vol. i, no. iii, 237) is a poor copy of Buckler's drawing.

For heralds the monument is particularly interesting for the unusual way in which the label is depicted, that is as a cord fastened round the upper part of the shield and having five longish ribands hanging from it. The whole appears to be a separate object added to a pre-existing shield of the three lions, and the marked corrugation of the ribands suggests that these were supposed to be loose and fluttering in the wind. So far as I can learn there is no other English example of a label represented in this manner, and it suggests that the earliest labels were of this

nature, easy to attach or remove as circumstances required.

It may be added that the animal on which the effigy's feet rest has been described as a lion, but there is no doubt that Baron was right in identifying it as an otter (Wilts Arch. Mag. xx, 153), though Mr. Stanford London tells me that he has not found that creature elsewhere as a Giffard

An architectural and historical description of Fleming for drawing my attention to the beam, Westbourne church by Mr. Lindsay Fleming, F.S.A., is in the press. I am very grateful to Mr.

generously providing the photograph for pl. xix, b, and giving me invaluable help in other directions.

REVIEWS

A catalogue of the Nimrud ivories, with other examples of ancient Near Eastern ivories in the British Museum. By R. D. BARNETT. $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. 252+132 pls.+92 figs. London: Trustees of the British Museum, 1957.

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Few classes of decorated objects reveal more of the religious and artistic ideas of the Levant, and of the ramifications of trade and craftsmanship during the Late Bronze and Iron Ages, than the carved ivories. And of these no single collection offers a better basis for study than those acquired by the British Museum from excavations at Nimrud. Every student of these matters will therefore turn to Mr. Barnett's catalogue, looking firstly for a complete photographic record of the fragments themselves, secondly for a reconstruction of the objects and analysis of their technique and ornament, and thirdly for what Mr. Barnett's wide learning in this special field can tell them of the schools of ivory-workers and their times. Readers of this book will find that the objects are superbly presented; but much remains to be learnt of their history.

To illustrate the fragments Mr. Barnett has assembled in the plates a series of photographs which, with the exception of a few that are printed rather too dark, are excellent in quality; and they are supplemented, where the subjects are obliterated, by sympathetic drawings. The scales of reproduction vary slightly, without indication on the plates, but are generally about natural

size.

The plates are preceded by a catalogue in which the fragments are arranged by provenance and numbered serially from room to room. It is a pity that no plans are given, for without them room-numbers mean nothing, and comparison with recent excavation reports becomes laborious. Lettered plans of at least the north-west and south-east palaces might well have replaced one of the

three illustrations inserted between pp. 12 and 13.

In each of the topographical divisions of the catalogue the items are grouped by subject-matter or function, and many of these groups are introduced by short commentaries. These contain much information of interest and could well have been expanded by incorporation of passages which deal with the same topics in earlier chapters. This would have had the great advantage of bringing facts and commentary together, and would have avoided much cross-reference rendered hazardous, as things are, by frequent mistakes (e.g. p. 171, n. 4; p. 177, n. 3), which make it im-

possible to follow up interesting comment without a tiresome search.

Of particular interest are the chapters which deal with the 'shapes and motifs' of the 'Loftus group' and the 'original function and subjects of the Layard series'. Here is assembled, in the text and footnotes, a wealth of comparative and bibliographical comment on the function and ornament of each group of fragments and on the history of the motifs employed. It might, as I have suggested, have helped the reader more if this part of the work could have been consolidated with the introductory sections of the catalogue, and placed directly before the items discussed; nevertheless, used with the index of motifs, these chapters remain a mine of information and stimulating comment on the meaning and development of many long-lived and widespread mythological and decorative motifs.

An earlier chapter on the 'origins and development' of 'Syrian and Phoenician art' is described on p. 33 as an attempt to ascertain the position of the Nimrud ivories in the history of art by surveying the 'currents of art in the second millennium B.C.'. Such a survey could lead to reliable conclusions only if it proceeded by an empirical method based on the systematic assembly of concrete examples. Failing that the currents of art, concealed behind such fluid epithets as 'Hurrian', 'Syrian', and the like, are too elusive to carry us towards an understanding of archaeological facts. As things are, I do not feel that Mr. Barnett has quite succeeded in showing, by concrete analysis, either what features in an object qualify it to be called 'Syrian' or 'Phoenician' or where those

features were evolved. Even the connotations of those terms, political or geographical ('Syrian' and 'N. Syrian' used interchangeably, 'Phoenicia' and 'Phoenician settlements' uneasily assorted), are left quite vague. Yet without some definition epithets like 'Syrian', 'Phoenician', or even 'Assyrian' applied to works of art are either question-begging or otiose or just confusing. What, for example, is meant by calling 'Assyrian' the style of carving of an object (pl. x, F. 1) whose details all prove (p. 183) to be non-Assyrian? Or by what criterion do we classify as 'Syrian' (pl. xxxii, S. 47) a strongly Egyptianizing object which elsewhere (p. 63) is 'in some degree Phoenician work' or, perhaps, 'a Syrian artist's exercise in the Phoenician manner'?

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Mr. Barnett doubtless has the answers to these and similar questions; but lacking a methodical analysis of technical, decorative, and iconographical detail, the reader can hardly hope to follow his interpretations. So many diversely worked ivories are now available that a scientific classification of their attributes would well repay the trouble of making it, enabling us to dispense with question-begging terms like 'Loftus group' (p. 49), and leading toward the isolation of individual workshops, distinguished by the groupings of tangible particulars, and designated by non-committal names. That this would be no hopeless task is shown by Mr. Barnett's own ingenious hypothesis of a workshop at Hamath; and no one could do it better than himself.

This book is of outstanding interest and value in detail, but surprisingly lacking in editorial finish and orderly arrangement. It is a serious disadvantage for the reader that much valuable discussion precedes any account of the ivories themselves, while most of the references to objects omit their plate numbers. The grouping of subheadings and paragraphs is by no means always clear; thus it is disconcerting, after group A of the Loftus ivories (p. 63) has been systematically enumerated under 14 shapes, to find that group B has disappeared from the scene: have some pages dropped out, or was the classification faulty? Misprints, wrong references, and figures without captions, far removed from their relevant texts, superabound; and weird aberrations like 'Heiropolis-Baalbeck' (p. 71) sadly disfigure a book of this importance by so distinguished a scholar.

R. W. HAMILTON

Geschichte des alten Vorderasiens. Von HARTMUT SCHMÖKEL. (Handbuch der Orientalistik, Band 2, Abschnitt 3.) 9\(^3\times 6\chi_1\). Pp. xii +342. Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1957. Fl. 45.

This history of the Ancient Near East, based mainly, but not entirely, on the ancient cuneiform records makes a heroic attempt at achieving a task which is now beyond the capacity of any one man. Inevitably, therefore, the author must be prepared for concentrated and varied attacks from professional critics who have spent a lifetime wrestling with their own unsolved problems. But Schmökel, with an engaging and disarming modesty in a brief introduction, recognizes how incomplete such a venture must be. Into this readable book we find a history which begins with the Sumerians rather before 3000 B.c. and ends with the Chaldeans a few decades before 500 B.c., a feat of compression which can at best be a preliminary approach. There are fifteen chapters which attempt a discussion of Sumer and Akkad, the Guti, Isin and Larsa, the kingdom of Mari, Hammurabi and his dynasty, Hittites, Hurrians, Kassites, and the subsequent fortunes of Babylon, Assyria, Palestine, Phoenicia, Israel-Judah, and finally back to Babylonia once more.

The succession of historical events has necessarily to be boxed into a series of overlapping compartments each of which contain a number of royal skeletons, a kind of bare outline exhumed from the cuneiform records. Every chapter has appended to it a section entitled *Kulturgeschicht-liches* which is an unsatisfactory abstract of information, with discursive comment on economics, archaeological, artistic, architectural, and religious subjects. If there is a lack of any deep historical perspective, of historical and economic synthesis, and of philosophical vision, the continuous industry of the record none the less leaves us with an accumulated impression of thrust and counter-thrust. As in the course of time cities, states, and empires embraced ever-widening

tracts of territory with increasing momentum, the gradual improvement of technological efficiency

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made every effort at expansion by one nation more dangerous to the others.

The lack of a new Cambridge Ancient History concerned with the earliest periods, of a successor to a historian of the calibre of Eduard Meyer, or of a revised edition of H. R. Hall's Ancient History of the Near East, has become more than ever manifest. It is no less clear that history and archaeology have today become inseparable and that a host of allied subjects of a technical character are now indispensable apparatus for the study of the past. Nevertheless, an elementary textbook of this kind does for the present fill a much needed gap and this one deserves to be and doubtless will be widely read, especially by students at universities. It is therefore particularly unfortunate that the chronological scheme is based on the system of Albright-Cornelius, as is explained without any attempt at justification on the last page of the book. The danger is that this 'short chronology' with its accompanying dates, may be accepted by the student as 'gospel', whereas in fact it is now probable that a majority of scholarly opinion in Europe, America, and Asia would reject it. Indeed there would appear to be a growing body of evidence which is causing a swing back to the 'long' rather than to the 'medium' chronologies, let alone the shortest. It is therefore to be hoped that if other editions or even translations of this book are made, there will be some attempt at discussion of the problem in a summary of the kind once well attempted by S. Pallis, in his Antiquity of Iraq, but taking account of more recent evidence. Even if no change in the system be adopted, a table at the end of the book giving alternative dates, and the presumed sequence of dynasties, should be included.

One of the defects of the book for which perhaps it is not altogether fair to blame the author, who has already carried on his shoulders too heavy a burden, is an inadequate appreciation of the ancient architectural achievement and of the stratigraphical succession of architectural remains. If the important work by Delougaz and Lloyd on the Pre-Sargonid Temples of the Diyala region is adequately examined, more especially the tremendous run of Sin-Temples from the Jamdat-Nasr age to the end of the Early Dynastic, it is hardly possible to accept a short chronology for the protohistoric and Early Dynastic periods with any kind of complacency. Strong ties with Egypt in the time of Menes which indicate an overlap with Babylonia at the end of the protohistoric period, also preclude a date much later than about 2000 B.c. for the beginning Early Dynastic I

in Sumer.

Later on when we come to the turn of the second millennium B.C. fresh evidence from Kül Tepe in particular has been used to support the systems of those who propose a chronology of c. 1850 B.C. or at the latest c. 1800 B.C. for the beginning of the reign of Hammurabi. For the long chronology and its archaeological justification in Anatolia the recent important studies by J. Mellaart in A.S. vii, 1957, and in the American Journal of Archaeology, lxii, 1958, must be taken into account. A remarkable correlation between the subject of a seal impression on a tablet of Samsu-ditana and bull-game scenes of MM 3 or LM 1 can in the absence of more precise information on the Cretan side be used as evidence both for a relatively high and for a relatively low date. Recent studies by H. Seyrig, Briggs Buchanan, and Edith Porada which involve a reexamination of dated I. Bab. Dyn. seal impressions is now becoming an important basis for argument.

Many specific criticisms on controversial evidence could be advanced; a very few may be selected to illustrate the difficulties with which the author has to contend. In the opening chapter there is no reference to the controversy which concerns the locus for the beginnings of civilization in the Tigris and Euphrates valleys. To what extent have we to reassess priorities in the light of geological and geographical studies by Lees and Falcon? Did the earliest cities in fact extend farther south than we had supposed? Can we be satisfied that virgin soil has been reached in Ur, Erech, Eridu? Are there still earlier remains in the waterlogged and sandy levels of Sumer?

In the brief reference to the Ubaid period the terminology 'Ubaid II is in fact long out of date

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ner? of date since the immense succession revealed by the Iraq Antiquities Department at Eridu. For the Early Dynastic periods the author has in my opinion, whilst discussing Tammuz, placed an excessive reliance on the theories of Moortgat who though justified in stressing the importance of that god in religious belief about vegetation and the reproduction of cattle, has tended to see Tammuz everywhere. The nomination of Tammuz as one of the principal divinities concerned with the Royal Tombs of Ur is very doubtful and the theory that he was resurrected from one of the famous graves not in accordance with the facts. A disturbance in the tomb where Woolley found the discarded bones of its occupant has been satisfactorily explained by him as due to tomb robbery. The hole in the roof was ingeniously masked by a wooden chest; the supposition that it was the place through which the god made his ascent is gratuitous theorizing. Incidentally, a remarkable tablet published by Kramer may now be accepted as the first literary evidence of the Sumerian practice of burying the king and his retainers who were to accompany him to the underworld. At the time when Woolley made his discoveries there was no warrant in literature for royal burial of this kind and there was a case for supposing that such interments were better explained as seasonal sacrifices connected with a fertility ritual and the Sacred Marriage.

In any discussion of the Kassites it is desirable to evaluate the reasons for identifying the first and the second Kurigalzu about whom there still exists considerable difference of opinion. More might have been made of the geographical evidence from the Mari texts and of the correlative evidence for the presence of Iasmah Adad, the son of the King of Assyria at Chagar Bazar. Chronological difficulties a millennium later are illustrated by the 'broken obelisk' once attributed to Tiglath-pileser I, here connected with Assur-bel-kela, by Luckenbill with Adad-nirari II, and by Albright and Landsberger with Assur-nasir-pal II (for the last attribution see A.J.A. liv, no. 3, 1950, p. 171, n. 37).

Such criticisms are merely pointers to the difficulties which today confront those who observe the broad canvas of Near Eastern achievement. They are compensated for by Schmökel's excellent narrative; his appreciation of individual character; and by the invaluable reassembling of much evidence which has for years remained in the isolation of learned periodicals. The excellent chapter on the Hittites, for example, does not neglect a passage in a Hittite hymn which describes the sun rising out of the sea, a possible reference to their early home on the western shores of the Caspian. Recent discoveries by Bittel of the horse and cremation burials at Boghaz Koi are examples of how much we owe to modern archaeological discovery, and the fact that since Schmökel's manuscript was submitted in 1954 new and significant evidence has been emerging from every field of exploration in the Near East reminds us that a new edition is already called for before ever the volume has reached the notice of the public.

It remains only to be said that the author's excellent documentation and very wide knowledge of the sources owes much to the guidance of Von Soden and other German scholars, and that he displays an exceptional familiarity with the relevant literature in many different tongues.

M. E. L. MALLOWAN

History begins at Sumer. By S. N. Kramer. 81×6. Pp. 333+pls. 57. London: Thames and Hudson, 1958. 35s.

Here a Sumerologist, 'one of the narrowest of specialists' as he describes himself, gives us, without overstepping the strait limits of his study, a book which is of wide scope, eminently readable and of fascinating interest. It is a work of real scholarship put in popular form. Even if some may cavil at the justifiable but perhaps overstressed insistence on 'the first' of everything (the book was written for an American public) yet they must needs recognize that they have here a great store of material, quite new to most people, throwing light upon our cultural origins. Not the least of the book's merits is that the Sumerian texts—many of them previously unpublished—

are quoted at length, literally translated, and with Kramer's explanations and commentary, and with the well-chosen illustrations, bring the reader into direct touch with the sources.

LEONARD WOOLLEY

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Glass from the Ancient World: The Ray Winfield Smith Collection. A Special Exhibition, 1957. 9 × 63. Pp. 298+452 figs. Corning Museum of Glass, Corning, New York, 1957.

The Ray Smith Collection has long been known to scholars and connoisseurs, and parts of it have been exhibited in Berlin, New York, Heidelberg, Mariemont, and elsewhere from time to time since 1945; but none of these exhibitions, not even Mariemont, the richest of them, in 1954, revealed the full wealth of the collection, as did this latest showing of it in all its magnificence by the Corning Museum of Glass last summer. The catalogue describes over 600 items out of a collection that numbers more than 1,000, illustrating individually about three-quarters of those listed. The book thus provides a most valuable corpus of photographs that cannot fail to be used, and often cited.

Mr. Smith divides his text into five chapters, by periods, each chapter being preceded by a careful and readable account of the glass ware of its own time, and this, together with the clearly written descriptions of the catalogue itself, becomes, in effect, a short general history of ancient glass, since most periods and types are well represented from Egyptian 18th Dynasty sand-core to Persian cut crystal of the tenth to twelfth century A.D. There is also a useful bibliography. Mr. Smith is a collector with a scholarly bent, whose contribution to glass studies amounts to far more than the mere amassing of such a comprehensive collection.

than the mere amassing of such a comprehensive collection.

D. B. Harden

Dreifußkessel von Olympia. Olympische Forschungen, Band III. Von Franz Willemsen. 11 ×81. Pp. 193+taf. 95. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1957.

Tripod-cauldrons must once have presented perhaps the most attractive Greek works of art in metal, so good photographs of the enormous number of legs and handles found at Olympia must be welcome. This general aspect is not, however, the chief interest of our author, and the general reader may like to be reminded that reconstructions of the more elaborate tripods can be seen in Furtwüngler's original publication Olympia iv and in vol. xxxv of the Annual of the British School at Athens. The author follows his predecessors in classifying by shape, set out in admirable section drawings, but it is hard to forgive him for supplying no concordance between plates and figures. He explains his classifications and summarizes them (pp. 54, 55), but alters his terminology in between, at least as regards handles, and does not include all section numbers.

There is a register containing all the information one could wish, but upwards of eight hundred museum numbers running into five figures, and not in numerical order, is difficult apparatus to handle.

Most of the book is concerned with minute classification and description of Geometric patterns which the general reader may be tempted to omit. The meat of the author's original work is to be found in the last two chapters on dating and provenience. The author brings down the date of the tripod-cauldron found by Schliemann in the ruins of Mycenae (pl. 1) to the eleventh century, to be in touch with two clay tripods found in a Protogeometric grave in the Kerameikos, on typological evidence. These objects are small and cheap, but the author does not hesitate to connect the magnificent series of Olympian tripod-cauldrons closely with them. On their account he starts the series in the dark ages, and begins it with large and complicated handles (pl. 7) on stylistic evidence.

I wish someone would reconstruct and weigh a large tripod-cauldron with heavy legs, handles,

and accessories, all solid castings. He should then carry it over undeveloped country from the sea to Olympia, which unburdened is a day's journey by road. He may conclude that the most convenient place to construct Olympian tripods must have been Olympia. No doubt artists of many lands worked there, and Athenians are likely to have been among them, on the stylistic evidence to be seen in Willemsen's illustrations. He figures only Attic vases in his comparative material. Also the style of the lions (pl. 63, B. 1730), has already been compared to a painting on an Attic vase-stand (Kerameikos, v, pl. 69): and compare the lions of the Attic Lion Painter.

My personal thanks to Mr. Willemsen for a splendid presentation of beautiful objects in which I have an especial interest.

SYLVIA BENTON

Myrtou-Pigadhes. A Late Bronze Age sanctuary in Cyprus. By JOAN DU PLAT TAYLOR. 13×10\frac{1}{3}. Pp. viii+118+7 pls. Printed for the Department of Antiquities, Ashmolean Museum, Oxford, 1957. 50s.

This is the final report on the excavations carried out in 1950-1 under the direction of the author, thanks to the joint sponsorship of the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford and the University of Sydney, at the site of Pigadhes near the village of Myrtou on the southern foothills of the western end of the Kyrenia range. The excavated area forms part of a large settlement, one of the most extensive in the area and the results throw considerable light on the Late Bronze Age in

a part of Cyprus where very limited exploration has so far been carried out.

The architectural remains are meticulously described by the author period by period from the beginning of the settlement towards the end of the Middle Cypriot (Bronze) Age (seventeenth century B.C.) through the Late Cypriot I–III and the revival in cypro-geometric times down to the eighth century B.C. The first architectural remains properly speaking appear in Period III (c. 1400 B.C.) when a number of rooms surround a court (fig. 6) which may have served some sacred use. The principal construction of the sanctuary belongs to Period V, c. 1300 B.C., when a small amount of Mycenaean IIIA-B sherds give evidence of the date of the construction. The complex (fig. 7) consists of a great court surrounded by rooms. At the east end of the court a monumental altar of ashlar masonry was erected after its floor was laid. The court and the surrounding buildings continued to be used during the whole of the thirteenth century B.C., since Myc. IIIC: 1 pottery also appears among the ceramic finds. It was destroyed in LC III (c. 1175) evidently during the upheavals caused by the People of the Sea—the effect of which was felt in most of the sites so far excavated in Cyprus including the great settlement of Enkomi near the east coast. There was a revival of the cult in Cypro-Geometric times (tenth-eighth century B.C.) evidenced by a large deposit of pottery and other finds.

Chapter iii deals with the Bronze Age Pottery described with much clarity by H. W. Catling, although in the text-figures illustrating the pottery no dividing lines exist to differentiate the various wares (e.g. figs. 14, 16) or in the case of fig. 19 to distinguish white slip I and II wares. In chapter iv the author with the collaboration of Lord William Taylour describes the Cypro-Geometric pottery while other finds are described by M. V. Seton-Williams and others. There is a fine hoard of bronze tripods and stands (fig. 34) described by H. W. Catling (chapter vii) and a few seals and a red jasper amulet with the cartouche of Ramesses II (fig. 33) described by Briggs Buchanan. A stimulating chapter (xi) by D. H. F. Gray deals with the sanctuary and the altar giving a thorough survey of possible connexions, western or eastern. At the end of the discussion the author adds notes on the cult and its appurtenances in which it is stated (p. 111) that the deity was almost certainly personified by a bull. In any case the discovery of the bronze horned god at Enkomi (ILN, 27 August 1949, pp. 316–17) shows that in the Late Bronze Age an

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apparently similar god was represented in human form, the bull's horns on the head-dress suggesting that the animal was his attribute. Lastly the animal remains and soil samples are examined by F. E. Zeuner and I. W. Cornwall.

It would be outside the scope of this review to discuss in detail the implications resulting from this small but important excavation, but the reviewer wishes to congratulate Miss Taylor and the other contributors on a most careful and conscientious piece of work which will be of substantial use to those who deal with Late Bronze Age material from Cyprus, which has been recently enriched by the discoveries at Enkomi, Sinda, and other sites.

P. Dikajos

Greek architecture. By A. W. LAWRENCE. 10×7. Pp. xxxi+327+pls. 152. The Pelican History of Art. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1957. 63s.

In this addition to the Pelican History of Art series, Professor Lawrence has divided his subject into two main sections: 'pre-Hellenic building' and 'Hellenic architecture'. In the first, he traces the sequence of building from neolithic to Mycenean times. The second part is arranged less chronologically, in that chapters are given to descriptions of the Ionic and Doric orders, and to such groups of buildings as tholoi and theatres which are dealt with in sections irrespective of date. In devoting about a third of the text to pre-Hellenic building, Professor Lawrence shows where his sympathies lie; although this division is excused on the grounds that this period has received less attention elsewhere than the latter ones, the disproportionate balance is to be regretted in a book of this character. In any survey which embraces so large a field some errors of fact are to be expected, and the following may be mentioned. The 'old temple' on Samothrace is described as having a Doric colonnade (p. 207) whereas the enclosure, loosely called the 'old temple' by Conze, had an Ionic propylaeum; the Doric colonnade is doubtless meant to refer to the structure found since Conze's time. On Samothrace too, the Arsinoeum is wrongly said to have had windows (pace Dinsmoor). Following Dorpfeld and others, the author says that Philo's arsenal at the Piraeus had an arcade of columns, although the drawing (fig. 147) shows it as having piers. It is strange that Hörmann's restoration drawing of Appius Pulcher's propylaea at Eleusis should be used to illustrate this building in view of the fact that this restoration is refuted in the text. The third temple of Aphaia, Aegina, is said to date 470-450 on the drawing on p. xxx, but in fact it belongs to the first two decades of the 5th century.

In a book essentially devoted to architecture one might have expected a more detailed account of buildings techniques, especially as the evidence for reconstructions relies largely on constructional features. For example, had the significance been appreciated of lewis holes in marble blocks, the statement that blocks were raised 'up earth ramps' would not have passed without further qualification. Besides lewis holes, no reference is made to pry holes in marble blocks or to the different forms of clamp holes; nor are such basic elements of a Classical building mentioned as the euthynteria, stereobate or stylobate.

By drawing attention to some of these errors and omissions it is not intended to imply that this is not a most valuable book. Even with the comparable works of Robertson and Dinsmoor as forerunners, the collation and presentation of material covering some three millennia is a considerable achievement. The text, which is particularly well illustrated with businesslike plans and diagrams, is mostly factual in approach, but Professor Lawrence has allowed himself space for an admirable concluding essay on the broader aesthetic aspects of Greek architecture.

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- The Prehistory of Africa. By H. ALIMEN. Trans. by A. H. BRODRICK. 9 × 5\frac{3}{4}. Pp. xviii +43\frac{3}{4}. London: Hutchinson, 1957. 63s.
 - Mlle Alimen's Préhistoire d'Afrique is a useful summary of our knowledge of prehistoric

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Africa, which can only have been compiled after wide reading. It is not surprising if in such a work there are some mistakes. Many English-speaking prehistorians will be grateful to the publishers for an English version of the book and for an improvement on the format of the French book. But they have not been fortunate in their translator. Not only have misprints from the French edition been perpetuated, but a new crop has been perpetrated. In places the translation is too literal, e.g. 'pulverulent', 'silicated', 'rupestral paintings'; sometimes it is not translation at all, e.g. 'axe en boudin' or a 'boudin axe', or by 'oreillettes around the mouth' of a pot. At times the author's meaning is confused by translating 'bifaces' as 'handaxes', 'assegai heads' for 'harpoons', 'vases' for 'pots', 'gimlets' for 'borers' (Upper Palaeolithic!), 'cleavers' for 'small axes', trenches' for 'holes', 'rostro-carinate' for 'keeled', 'corrugated' ware for the well-known 'rippled' ware of the Badarian, 'enamel' for 'glaze', 'statues' for 'statuettes', 'Recent' for 'Late' (several times), &c. The confusion is worse confounded by mistakes like 'Capsian' for 'Aterian' (p. 101), confusing Class N with Class C in Petrie's analysis of Pre-dynastic pottery (p. 113), 'leather' for 'copper' (p. 115), and by inserting the word 'respectively' after 'G. Caton-Thompson and E. W. Gardner', giving the erroneous impression that the former alone studied the Fayum and the latter Kharga (p. 82).

The maps have been redrawn, and an attempt made to change French spelling of proper names to that usual in English; but in fig. 49 we have Uennat for Owenat, the Fayum is omitted, the western Bahr el Ghazal is shown as rising in N.E. Borku, and Singa and Abu Hugar as being on the White Nile instead of on the Blue.

In the original work there are points which could be improved in a future edition. For example (p. 122), Pre-dynastic wavy-handled pots derived from Palestine, not Mesopotamia; (p. 125) the magnificent flints characterized the Gerzean, not the Neolithic; (p. 167) the hache à gorge copied in stone the Egyptian two-lugged copper axe, and has nothing to do with Australia or America; (p. 171) it is confusing to call the Central Sudan the Abu Anga region, Khor Abu Anga being only one important site; (p. 176) the stone mace-heads of the Khartoum Neolithic were flat-topped, not pear-shaped; (p. 177) F. Addison did not conduct excavations; he published those of the late H. Wellcome; (p. 342) Bond did not excavate anywhere; he recovered the skull from Singa; I collected at Abu Hugar; (p. 400) the chouchet of the western Sahara should be linked with the dated graves of the C Group people in the Nile Valley; and may I point out that (pp. 169, 357, and 371) the work of my distinguished cousin, the late W. J. Arkell, F.R.S., has been confused with mine.

The Prehistory of European Society. By GORDON CHILDE. 7×44. Pp. 183, Pelican Books A.415. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1958. 3s. 6d.

In this slim, and, as it proved, valedictory volume, written in the Blue Mountains of Australia that were so soon to claim his life, the late Professor V. Gordon Childe summarizes in simple terms his conclusions about a sphere of prehistory to which he devoted his career. When Childe began, in pursuit of the elusive Aryans, to study prehistory rather more than thirty years ago, archaeologists were still preoccupied very largely with chronological studies. In successive editions of The Dawn of European Civilization Childe endeavoured to interpret the archaeological material dating from the period when first agriculture and then metallurgy were introduced to Europe in terms of culturally defined communities. From the beginning he realized that Europe could not usefully be studied in isolation from the Near East, and as his thought developed, he began to view the changes of this phase of European prehistory in explicit relation to the successive 'revolutions'—agricultural and urban—that he claimed to detect in the ancient homelands of Old World civilization. More recently he came to recognize more fully the complexity of the phenomena in which he was chiefly interested; in particular, he came to appreciate more

fully the individual character of European civilization even during its prehistoric phase. In the last edition of *The Dawn* and in the volume before us he concerns himself in some detail with the process by which Europe inherited the achievements of Western Asia without being thereby enslaved and more positively with the way in which the prehistoric inhabitants of Europe built

up their own civilization.

Contemporary estimates of scholarly achievement are often distorted by irrelevancies of personality or position, and it is seldom possible to predict what even the next generation will think of respected and even eminent figures of the day. Although Childe's style was seldom graceful and he would on occasion, as he does in the present volume, obscure his meaning with Marxist jargon, his contribution to prehistoric archaeology was so basic and the concepts he developed so illuminating that his place in the history of archaeology seems to be assured. Childe never forgot that archaeology is a study of things, but equally his whole work proclaimed that the object of archaeology was to throw light on the history of human society.

GRAHAME CLARK

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The Low Countries. By S. J. DE LAET. 8 × 53. Pp. 240 pls. 63. London: Thames and Hudson, 1958. 21s.

The lack of a natural frontier and the great cleavage formed by the lower course of the Rhine make the Low Countries particularly intractable as a regional unit for the study of European prehistory. Only modern political considerations could have dictated the choice and even here the author has had to contend with the different traditions of the Belgian and Dutch schools of prehistoric research. Faced with these difficulties Dr. de Laet has succeeded in presenting a factual account of the material available and setting out the main results achieved. The account necessarily records the conclusions reached by many workers and in places reflects the unresolved conflicts between different points of view. Only a knowledge of the material as wide and as intimate as that of the author would justify a detailed discussion of these problems. Here it will be sufficient to draw attention to a few points of particular interest.

Recent work in Dutch Limburg and the Belgian Hesbaye has added considerably to our knowledge of the westernmost extension of the Danubian civilization. The house plans from Geelen, here conveniently republished, provide a welcome confirmation of those available from the classic station at Köln Lindental, while an analysis of the pottery shows that the earliest strata there and on other sites in Limburg go back to the older stage of the German settlement. The initial date near the end of the fifth millennium B.C., based on radio carbon datings from Geelen and Sittard, is appreciably earlier than that previously suggested, but is borne out by

similar evidence from Germany.

The chapter on the Bronze Age is of importance to English studies. Recent excavations in barrows have disclosed connexions with Britain. The author adopts the suggestion that certain pottery types, in particular the Hilversum urns of the Middle Bronze Age, and barrows with a surrounding bank and ditch were introduced by immigrant groups from Britain. The date suggested for this invasion—between 1400 and 1200 B.C.—is not free from difficulties and full confirmation of the hypothesis here adopted will require both a reassessment of the English evidence and a deeper knowledge of the contemporary material from northern France.

The correlation between the archaeological material of the La Tène period and the historical record is not entirely convincing. Apart from a casual mention in connexion with the Titelberg there is no discussion of the Celtic coins, a vital factor in any assessment of the tribal pattern. Without a far fuller analysis it would be undesirable to throw over the explicit testimony of Caesar and confine the term Belgae to the tribes between the Seine and Marne and the modern

frontier.

A critical approach to some of the author's conclusions must not be allowed to detract from our appreciation of the very real service which he has rendered to English readers by his summary of material scattered through many works, not all of which are easily accessible.

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C. A. RALEGH RADFORD

Forma Orbis Romani. Carte archéologique de la Gaule romaine. Fascicule XI. Carte et Texte du Département de la Drôme. By J. SAUTEL. Pp. 164. Map+6 plates. Paris: Centre national de la Recherche scientifique. 1957.

The first fascicule of the Carte archéologique appeared in 1931, the tenth in 1946, the map of France used as the basis for the work being the fine 1/200,000 map of the Institut géographique national. There is no attempt, as in the Victoria County History maps, to differentiate the classes of finds by the use of different symbols overprinted on the basic map. The system is to underline names of towns and villages in red, where Roman remains have been found, and to give them a serial number, also in red, corresponding to their number in the text. The density of these red marks does, however, give some visual idea of the regions which were most heavily settled.

This fascicule was nearly finished by the lamented Chanoine J. Sautel before his death. A historical introduction sums up the chief facts known about the area and its inhabitants, Allobroges, Tricastini, and Vocontii, but the work is in the main a rich store-house of raw material for all historians and archaeologists interested in this part of Gaul. There is an exhaustive gazetteer of finds, commune by commune, a bibliography, sections on place-names, personal names, &c. The hundred or so inscriptions found since the publication of Espérandieu's Inscriptions latines de la Gaule Narbonnaise (1927) are published in full and recently found Gallo-Roman sculptures and mosaics are noted. The sculptures include several new fragments of early Christian sarcophagi.

Roman roads are shown as blue lines; surprisingly only two are given, the Rhone and Drôme valley roads, both familiar from itineraries. The editors say that there is not enough data to give lesser roads, though there is early medieval information about the Isère route. One of the most valuable features of the series has been the town plans, and in this issue there are Valence, Die, and Luc-en-Diois. It is disappointing that the traces of centuriation around Valence are not discussed. Mr. Bradford's book Ancient Landscapes in which the matter is raised appeared too late, but M. André Blanc's Valence Romaine (1953), which Mr. Bradford states contains an air-photograph showing some of the limites, is included in the bibliography and it would have been interesting to know the views of the men on the spot.

Recueil général des mosaïques de la Gaule I: Province de Belgique; i: Partie Ouest (= X° supplément à 'Gallia'). By Henri Stern. 11 × 8½. Pp. 105+56 pls. Paris: Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, 1957.

This is the first instalment of the 'Recueil' of the mosaics of Gaul and French Roman Africa, which the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres long ago projected and to which the well-known 'Inventaire des mosaïques de la Gaule et de l'Afrique', published between 1909 and 1915, was but a preliminary. Each fascicule of this 'Recueil' will appear in the 'Suppléments a Gallia' series. The grouping of the mosaics is by Roman provinces, as in the 'Inventaire', and, within each province, by Gallo-Roman civitates; and, again as in the 'Inventaire', medieval mosaics, a form of art strongly influenced by classical traditions, are to be included in appendices.

The present fascicule consists of a substantial introduction and a catalogue, which covers the Remi, Suessiones, Bellovaci, Ambiani, Viromandui, Morini, and Nervii, and comprises 140 items in all. The medieval mosaics number ten. Each entry contains a statement of provenance,

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J. M. C. TOYNBEE

detailed description, bibliography, if any, and an approximate date, where dating is at all possible —and here Krüger's chronology (Arch. Anz. 1933, cols. 656-710) is, perhaps, a trifle too uncritically followed, while no. 29 (pl. 9), including its figure-panel, is surely later than second-tothird century. The area studied is the poorest in Gallo-Roman relics in the whole of Gaul, and most of its mosaics are, as Stern points out, geometric pieces of 'second plan', apart from a fine acanthus-scroll fragment, now unfortunately lost (no. 80B, pl. 27). Of the relatively few figured pavements, two are of especial interest—the Bellerophon mosaic found at Reims in 1938 and published here for the first time (no. 6, pls. 3, 4), and the fourth-century Orpheus pavement from Blanzy-lès-Fismes, Aines (no. 77, pls. 23, 24, 25).

We wish this courageous and important project all success. May it soon find its counterpart in Britain! It is only through corpora of this kind that we shall eventually obtain a valid picture of the development and scope of these ubiquitous and sometimes highly significant documents of

Graeco-Roman art and culture.

An Antonine fort. Golden Hill, Duntocher. By Anne S. Robertson. 81 × 53. Pp. xii + 1 34+pls. 8, and 2 folding plans. Edinburgh: Oliver and Boyd: Published for the University of Glasgow.

In 1947, when Miss Robertson began to excavate on Golden Hill, Duntocher, even the site of the second station from the west end of the Antonine Wall was in doubt. Four years later the plan of a singular series of works had been revealed. There was no Agricolan occupation, and the earliest permanent structure was a fortlet resembling the milecastles on Hadrian's Turf Wall. At first this stood free for it was not joined by the Antonine Wall until after it had been partly incorporated in a fort four times its size. The sequence closed with the addition of a still larger annexe. The arrangement is unique, and only the sequence at Great Chesters (milecastle, fort, Wall) is at all similar.

The volume in which the results are published includes a competent report on the pottery and other small finds and a valuable discussion of the historical context. This serves to remind us that neither the ideas about the history of the Antonine Wall generally accepted in the thirties, nor suggestions put forward in more recent years (by the reviewer among others) have sufficient evidence to support them. New evidence is, however, coming in, and the present report is the first I. P. GILLAM

substantial instalment.

1957. 30s.

It is most satisfactory that someone has at last written up some of the military architecture of the Indian sub-continent for, as Mr. Sidney Toy says in his preface, there has been hitherto no book dealing primarily with the castles and fortresses of India, and with his previous study of this type of building in Europe and the Near East he is very well qualified to write this book.

Mr. Toy describes some two dozen forts mainly from the planning and military aspect. The book is arranged geographically and is lavishly illustrated both by photographs and by plans and sections in the text which help to emphasize the enormous scale of many of the buildings.

It is a pity that some slips have been allowed to creep in. For instance, plate 118a is the east gate of the Citadel of Tughlaqabad and not one of the town gates marked B on the plan. Purana Qila at Delhi is built round an old city-mound some 30 ft. high and not on 'practically level ground' and the walls do not 'form a rectangle' but a very squashed irregular pentagon and the plan on p. 124 is not Purana Qila. In subsequent editions such matters could be corrected.

Although Mr. Toy's selection is a very fair cross-section of the various types of fort in India

he has not touched on the multi-story forts of the higher Himalayas or on the smaller Rajasthan and 'Hill States' palace-forts.

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The number of fortresses in Pakistan and India is almost limitless and we can look forward to other volumes from Mr. Toy.

HILARY WADDINGTON

Erik den Helige. Historia — Kult — Reliker. Studier utgivna under red. av Bengt Thordemann. 10½ × 8. Pp. xx +453 + text figs. 43 + pls. 297. (Summaries in German.) Stockholm: Nordisk Rotogravyr, 1954.

It is impossible to do justice to this splendid and lavishly produced book in a short review. It is, in effect, a report on the detailed examination made in 1946 of the shrine and relics of St. Eric in Uppsala Cathedral to which has been added a great deal of background information. Ten Swedish scholars have contributed chapters dealing respectively with the historical, legendary, liturgical, and iconographical aspects of the saint, with the skeletal remains, textiles, and crown found in the shrine, with the shrine itself and its predecessors, and finally with a supposed relic of St. Eric in the cathedral at Åbo, Finland.

St. Eric's short reign as king of Sweden seems historically to have been of little significance, although according to later legend he had all the qualities of the Augustinian rex justus. After his murder in 1160 outside East Aros church (the present Uppsala), where he had just attended Mass, miracles are said to have taken place at his tomb. Even so it is doubtful whether he would ever have become anything more than a strictly local saint, unrecognized by the Church, if he had not been the founder of a dynasty whose members were anxious to encourage his cult for political reasons. The process of raising his status had already started during the reign of his son Knut, and by 1273 when his relics were enshrined in the new Uppsala Cathedral at East Aros, which was partly dedicated to him, his position as Sweden's patron saint was assured. Since that date, despite many vicissitudes, most of his relics have remained in the cathedral, a fact established beyond reasonable doubt by the report on the bones found in the shrine. Of the objects associated with the original burial only fragments of the saint's woollen shirt and an important late Romanesque funerary crown of copper-gilt survive. They are, however, accompanied by an interesting series of later medieval textiles, including a splendid 13th-century brocade pall in almost perfect condition. The shrine itself is a notable piece of Renaissance goldsmith's work made in 1574-9 by Hans Rosenfeldt of Stockholm, but it is impossible to write about it without regret for the shrine it was designed to replace. This last, which contained three times the amount of gold and silver as the present one, was made in 1405-15 by Lambrecht of Stockholm and was probably the most remarkable work of its kind produced in Sweden during the middle ages. In 1573 both it and the shrine of St. Bridgit from Vadstena were melted down at the order of King John III in order to provide funds for the war against Russia, six goldsmiths being employed in the work of destruction for three weeks. A seventeenth-century engraving of a fifteenth-century painting of the shrine is all that now remains to give some indication of its former splendour. CLAUDE BLAIR

A short account of Muslim architecture. By K. A. C. Cresswell. 7×41. Pp. 330+63 drawings +pls. 72. Pelican Books A.407. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1958. 8s. 6d.

A great welcome will be given to this inexpensive abridgement of Professor Creswell's two folio volumes of *Early Muslim Architecture*. That work, originally envisaged as a preliminary to a history of the Muslim architecture of Egypt, contains (in 819 pages with 752 plans and illustrations and 204 plates) 'a description of Muslim monuments in all countries for the first three centuries of Islam' and describes 'the birth and evolution of the style as fully as possible'. Much of it was pioneer work, and the accuracy and care with which all the monuments and all the historical

evidence were examined remain a model for—and a challenge to—the architectural historians of other civilizations. The one difficulty with which it faced the student was its size and consequent expense, and this the present abridgement has removed. How has it been done? In the most important chapters the text has simply been pruned, so that what it lacks in comprehensiveness it gains in speed. Four chapters which bore more particularly on pre-Muslim art and its survival have been omitted; they concerned the mosaics of the Dome of the Rock at Jerusalem and Great Mosque at Damascus, the evolution of the pendentive, and the squinch before A.D. 700. Similarly the descriptions of a few buildings had to be excluded (e.g. the Alcazaba of Merida, the walls and Manār of Sūsa, and the Great Mosque at Tunis); but on the other hand an account of the palace of Minyas on Lake Tiberias (excavated in 1932–9) has been added. Some sacrifices, in short, have had to be made in order to condense the work into so small a compass; but there can be no doubt that they were well worth while, since the abridgement will allow a greater public to study both early Muslim architecture and Professor Creswell's method.

R. H. C. DAVIS

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The beginnings of Christian art. By D. TALBOT RICE. $8\frac{3}{4} \times 5\frac{3}{4}$. Pp. 224+3 colour pls.+48 pls.+21 figs. London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1957. 42s.

The title does not really indicate the scope of this book. It provides a survey of Christian mosaic and painting in the Byzantine world from the beginnings down to the end of the Empire, together with a review of Western Christian art in the same fields, down to the year 1100. Sculpture and the minor arts are included principally in order to illustrate stages where painting and mosaic are scarce or lacking; no comprehensive treatment of these is attempted. The halftone illustrations are well chosen and clearly reproduced; it is to be regretted that the same medium was not used for the few pieces of sculpture figured. While noting the discrepancy between the field covered and the title, both scholars and art-lovers will welcome this learned and up-to-date survey of Byzantine mosaic and painting; in particular the well-informed account of recent discoveries in Constantinople and in Yugoslavia, which are here set in their proper context, is a notable contribution to English studies of Byzantine art.

The author's approach to his subject is essentially aesthetic; his appreciation of the works is sympathetic and sensitive. It is clear that Byzantine art in its widest sense makes an appeal, to which he fully responds. By contrast his judgement of West Christian art is, at times, harsh and lacking in understanding. In a field where dates and attributions are still a matter of lively controversy, Professor Talbot Rice does not shirk the very real difficulties; his judgements always command respect and generally assent. Historically his touch is less sure. Instances involving a certain confusion of thought occur on pp. 67–68, where the fifth-century sequence is under consideration, and on pp. 172–3, where the dating of the twelfth-century Sicilian mosaic

is in question.

One of the most valuable features of this book is the opening survey of the classical background. The author describes and analyses the three trends in classical art, which influenced the development of Christian mosaic and painting. The picturesque, the impressionist, and the Neo-Attic styles of the first three centuries of our era, all contributed to the new Christian schools of art. It is the interaction of these styles and their survival and re-emergence that give to Christian art its vitality and its richness. In this analysis the non-specialist reader will find art-historical criticism at its best and most helpful. Professor Talbot Rice's fuller and deeper appreciation of the background liberates the subject from the barren controversies of Orient versus Rome, which vexed scholars of the last generation.

C. A. RALEGH RADFORD

Les églises comtoises: leur architecture des origines au XVIII^o siècle. Par René Tournier. 11×9. Pp. 448+72 pls., 10 maps, 82 plans, 26 figs. Paris: A. & J. Picard & Cie, 1954.

This is an exacting book for the reader, but one that will repay his time and trouble. M. Tournier of the Service des Monuments Historiques has here produced a history of the ecclesiastical architecture of the départements of Doubs, Jura, and Haute-Saône, and of the territoire of Belfort, which together represent—as far as modern administrative divisions can—the ancient Free County of Burgundy. A marcher country, lacking well-defined physical boundaries except in the mountain ranges of the north and the south-east, harassed by a troubled political history, and open to influences from all sides in its capacity as a crossing of great roads linking Italy with northern France and the Rhone valley with the Rhine, Franche Comté had no opportunity to foster any great architectural school of its own. Apart from a handful of great names—Besançon, Luxeuil, Dôle, Acey—its churches rarely appear in general works on French architecture. Enlart's list of Romanesque churches devotes only seven lines to all three départements.

M. Tournier's work, based on a detailed study of the fabric and documentation of almost a thousand churches, is therefore valuable as filling a gap, but it is more valuable in its approach to the subject. Here are no guide book accounts of individual churches, and no facile generalizations on broad issues. Instead, the reader is given a meticulous architectural history of the region, pursued stylistically and chronologically from early Christian times into the eighteenth century without a break and with relentless enthusiasm. Not only does the author examine the penetration of external influences, the contributions of Burgundy, Champagne, the Rhine, the Moselle, and later those of Flanders, Paris, and Italy, but he also relates their impact to changing politics and to patronage, to the borrowing and lending of architectural ideas amongst the monastic Orders, and to the massive conservatism of the mountain districts.

The graphic presentation of the architectural evidence is good in quality and more than adequate in quantity. The plates are better than one normally expects in publications of this kind, and the plans are boldly drawn to respectable scales, although their clarity fights a losing battle with the paper on which they have been printed. Maps showing the distribution of churches by date are backed up by another series of maps showing the transmission of architectural influences inside and outside the region. A particularly valuable feature, and one that could bear imitation on a similar scale in this country, is the provision of outline drawings of more than four hundred types of mouldings, window tracery, vault plans, &c., all cross-referenced to the churches in which they appear, and forming in themselves a corpus of the constructional and decorative characteristics of the region.

R. GILYARD-BEER

Matthew Paris. By Richard Vaughan, 8\frac{3}{4} \times 5\frac{3}{4}. Pp. xii + 287. Cambridge: at the University Press, 1958. 42s.

In this latest addition to Cambridge Studies in Medieval Life and Thought Mr. Richard Vaughan has made an important contribution to our knowledge of thirteenth-century historiography. He is closely familiar with all the relevant manuscripts and devotes the early chapters of his admirable book to an examination of the problems arising from them. Mr. Vaughan has made a special study of the handwriting of Matthew Paris and his learned argument for Paris's authorship of the Flores Historiarum from 1241 to 1249, the Abbreviatio Chronicorum and the Vitae Offarum is lucidly and convincingly stated. The relationship and chronology of the major works—the Chronica Majora, Historia Anglorum, and Liber Additamentorum—and the intricate manuscript problems arising from the Flores Historiarum are also examined, with graceful acknowledgement of the author's indebtedness to the work of Sir Maurice Powicke and Professor Galbraith. In the second half of the book Mr. Vaughan proceeds to a consideration of Matthew

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Paris as chronicler, hagiologist, historian of St. Albans and artist (excellent reproductions of some of his drawings appear among the plates at the end of the book) and of his interest in cartography, heraldry, natural science, and poetry. Though he does not deny either his wide-ranging curiosity or his gift for writing lively and dramatic narrative, Mr. Vaughan is, on the whole, sharply critical of Matthew Paris. He sees him as anti-intellectual, superficial in his judgements of men and events, a crusty old gossip, a humbug and a hypocrite, memorable mainly for his enshrinement of the foibles and prejudices of the man in the street, 'the first recognizable personification of John Bull'. The foibles and prejudices which endeared Matthew Paris to the late A. L. Smith and to generations of English readers before him, serve merely to exasperate Mr. Vaughan who, though he tells us that his subject was likeable, fails to persuade us that he himself likes him. Not everyone will be prepared to go all the way with Mr. Vaughan in his strictures on one of the best-known and best-loved of our medieval chroniclers: but few medievalists can fail to enjoy this book.

MAY McKISACK

Medieval cartularies of Great Britain: a short catalogue. By G. R. C. Davis. $8\frac{3}{4} \times 5\frac{3}{4}$. Pp. xxi+182. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1958. 30s.

The importance of cartularies, which are registers of muniments of Religious Houses and of private owners, was recognized in the seventeenth century by historians and antiquaries, Sir William Dugdale, Roger Dodsworth, and Bishop Tanner, and by distinguished collectors of manuscripts, Sir Robert Cotton and Robert Harley, earl of Oxford. Students of medieval history and genealogy will be grateful to the group of scholars who planned this book and to Mr. Davis who expended much time and toil in compiling this catalogue of 1,344 manuscripts. He has written a valuable introduction and has added to each description references to printed texts and articles. A notable example of their nature and contents is The Great Chartulary of Glastonbury Abbey (Somerset Record Society 1947–56), owned by the Marquess of Bath; in 1340 the abbot appointed a keeper of the muniments with the duty of instructing a younger monk concerning them. The majority of cartularies are now in the British Museum, a number are at Oxford in the Bodleian and in College libraries, others are at Cambridge and some among the muniments of cathedrals of the old and new foundation. An Index of past owners and another of present owners will help students.

ROSE GRAHAM

The cathedrals of Italy. By J. W. Franklin. 9×6. Pp. 280. London: Batsford, 1958. 351.

As Mr. Franklin explains, there are some 350 cathedrals in Italy, many of them architecturally insignificant; but it is a little surprising that a book under this title should deal with less than one-tenth of the total. This defect in quantity is remedied by the quality of treatment, the first adequate account in English of the Italian cathedral as an art-form. There is an excellent summary of development from the fourth to the twentieth century, as well as detailed discussion of over thirty buildings.

The illustrations, mainly from new photographs by Mr. A. F. Kersting, are beautiful and well printed, though the block-plans regrettably lack scales (it seems that most are to the uniform scale of 1:2000), and the map marks only some 60 of the places mentioned. There is, however, a complete list of the cathedrals and ex-cathedrals, giving the main building dates, a short biblio-

graphy, and a good index.

In a brief notice detailed criticism is impossible: one may wonder whether philologists accept that the name of an Anglo-Norman archbishop of 1185—Offamilius—really represents the

English words 'of the Mill' (p. 244); and 'Heinrich von Eisingen' (p. 184) is an unfortunate slip for the famous Ulrich von Ensingen. Mr. Franklin is certainly right in stating (p. 237) that the Sicilian pointed arch was not due to Gothic developments in North Europe: but is the converse true also?

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An Inventory of the Ancient and Historical Monuments of Selkirkshire with the Fifteenth Report of the Commission. 103+82. Pp. xxiv+185+pls. 40. Edinburgh: H.M. Stationery Office, 1957. £3. 75. 6d.

Since the war the Royal Commission on Ancient Monuments of Scotland has published six inventories ranging from Orkney, Shetland, and the Western Isles to Roxburghshire in the south-east. To this proud record a further volume is now added dealing with Selkirkshire, another of the south-east border counties.

Owing to rigorous conditions and a mountainous terrain, the region was sparsely populated in prehistoric times and during the medieval period was largely governed by forest laws which offered little or no inducement to the building of castles and tower houses, so common in other parts of Scotland. These factors are reflected in the smaller number of monuments available for study: 204 are listed and described.

A special feature, however, is the incorporation of numerous early settlement sites discovered by aerial photography between 1951 and 1955. The opportunity is also taken to include a list of similar sites observed in aerial reconnaissance (pp. xiv-xviii) of marginal land throughout the greater part of Scotland south of the Tay and the Highland foothills.

The detailed inventory is preceded by a valuable introduction which not only describes the topography and natural resources (part I) but presents the cultural and historical background of the monuments. As a close cultural affinity exists with the neighbouring county of Roxburgh, relative parts of the introduction to that recently published volume are reprinted for easier reference (appendix C).

Only a few scattered finds indicate the presence of the earliest settlers: small Mesolithic and Neolithic communities who penetrated into this inhospitable region. From the succeeding Early Bronze Age a few short cists and cairns are recorded, but growing activity is apparent from sporadic finds dating to the Middle and Late Bronze Ages.

The Iron Age (from 100 B.C.) is better represented by a series of sites, principally forts, occupying the crests and spurs of ridges between the 500-1,200 ft. contours, obviously related to the contour forts of Roxburghshire, where recent excavation shows that hill-fort construction reached its maximum about the middle of the first century A.D. immediately prior to Roman penetration in A.D. 80.

During the Roman period Selkirkshire did not lie on any trunk-road system, though local lines of penetration can be detected, as shown by the recently excavated Oakwood Fort in the Ettrick Valley, occupied during the Flavian period. When Roman power waned and the allied kingdoms of the Votadini and Dumnonii emerged after A.D. 369 a native reoccupation of the area is apparent. Graves of this period contain no Roman objects but by the early sixth century, two chieftains of these 'Men of the North' were commemorated on the famous Yarrow Stone (no. 174) by a Christian epitaph in Latin. This inscription is carefully analysed by Mr. C. A. Ralegh Radford and Professor K. H. Jackson, who describe its exact meaning and assure its place in the series of Early Christian inscribed stones. This native society was swept away by Anglian invaders in the sixth—seventh centuries and it is to this period that the linear earthwork known as the 'Picts' Work Ditch' is ascribed in a special study (appendix A).

The county is barren of ecclesiastical foundations, but secular monuments include three mottes of which that at Selkirk, with its large bailey, is the most impressive and was, presumably, the site

of the royal castle and occasional residence of Scottish kings. The introduction contains a history of the Burgh of Selkirk, which grew up in the shadow of the castle motte, as well as a fully documented account of forest administration.

From the beginning of the sixteenth century, tenants' rights in the forest were safeguarded and a few Scottish tower houses were erected, giving place in the eighteenth century to more elegant

residences built by the influential border families.

The text is illustrated by excellent plates, distribution maps, and plans maintaining the highest standards established by the Royal Commission. The volume is an indispensable source of reference and a valuable aid to the planning of further research in border archaeology.

J. R. C. HAMILTON

A history of Kent. By Frank W. Jessup. $8\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. 192. London: Darwen Finlayson, 1958. 16s.

Counties, as the author of this book justly remarks, are not natural units; they are therefore not the best subjects for local history. Kent is perhaps one of the few exceptions. As a peninsula, an ancient kingdom, and the highway to the Continent, it has always possessed a marked individuality, and it has managed to retain this even in the twentieth century, notwithstanding its

proximity to London.

Mr. Jessup, as honorary secretary of the Kent Archaeological Society, is well qualified to write of the county. He has planned his book not as a continuous narrative, but as a chronologically ordered series of chapters dealing with the topics and periods he judges most important. As a short account of Kentish history the book could scarcely be bettered. Its brevity is indeed its only serious demerit, for Mr. Jessup is so readable and so much alive to the sort of questions the present-day historian is likely to ask that again and again one wishes he had had space for a fuller treatment. For example, if it is worth mentioning that the first English Carmelite house was founded at Aylesford in 1240, it is equally significant that the Carmelites are back at Aylesford in 1958. On economic and agrarian subjects Mr. Jessup is particularly good. The book is attractively illustrated with reproductions of old prints and with a number of excellently lettered maps.

H. P. R. Finberg

The city of Salisbury. Edited by Hugh Shortt. With a Foreword by LAWRENCE TANNER. 9\(^34\times 6\). Pp. 143. London: Phoenix House, 1957. 42s.

Five local residents have combined to write this dignified historical symposium, to which the late Dr. Eeles has contributed a 'postscript' on the Sarum use. They have provided the nonspecialist with a short and readable account of the development of the two cities, which, if based largely on existing publications, yet adds new facts and theories to them. A refreshing feature is the attempt to treat more indulgently the work of James Wyatt as the restorer of the cathedral. The chapters covering the period 1220-1660 are the least successful. Neither is strong on the economic side. Moreover the first fails to bring out with sufficient emphasis the contrast between the small cathedral city of the thirteenth century and the booming industrial town of the fifteenth. Its author's notions about medieval parliaments are not up to date, and she has invented a parish of St. Nicholas. In the ensuing chapter the number of religious houses in Wiltshire is underestimated, and the fact forgotten that Trinity Hospital was among those never dissolved. It is stated in the interesting closing chapter that Roman Catholicism 'returned' to Salisbury in 1848. Actually a chapel was registered in 1797. In the same chapter the foundation of Hayter's Almshouses and the fusion of the city with the county police force in 1946 could with advantage have been mentioned. R. B. Pugh

English Romanesque lead sculpture. By George Zarnecki, Ph.D., F.S.A. 71×43. Pp. vii+46+pls. 81. London: Tiranti, 1957. 155.

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This is a third contribution by Dr. Zarnecki to the history of English Romanesque sculpture. The leadfonts form the largest single group of English Romanesque church fittings that has survived. They date from the second half of the twelfth century and the author postulates a very strong influence of Mosan art in them. Of the thirty leaden fonts surviving in this country sixteen belong to the period discussed here. It is likely that originally there were many more and it appears that the same design was sometimes repeated. There is indeed a group of six fonts of identical pattern. They were probably the work of goldsmiths. In the earliest surviving example, from Walton on the Hill, Surrey, there are clearly reminiscences of the Bury Bible at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge; the supposed work of Master Hugo who was a metal worker as well as illuminator. Influence of enamels may also be seen in some of the leafwork found in the important group from Gloucestershire. Incidentally, this leafwork recalls the ornament in a Bible from Winchcombe, now in Trinity College, Dublin.

To me at any rate it seems that Dr. Zarnecki does less than justice to the font at Lower Halstow, Kent, which though rather jejune in general design has very good figures. Moreover, the iconography of this font is interesting. Its elements are an angel and a standing king. These are arranged so as to compose a repeating pattern of a standing king between two angels, and may well be a reflection of some imperial composition, where the Emperor stands between two angels. The contrast between the heads in high relief and the bodies in low relief on this font may have been inspired by Limoges enamels. The hunched wings of the angel may also be derived from the same source.

F. WORMALD

Monumental brasses. By James Mann. 7+43. Pp. 40+pls. 32. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1957. 5s.

Books on brasses are often difficult to find and somewhat costly and formidable for beginners, so this admirable little introduction is very welcome, and it is wholly proper that Dr. Pevsner should have invited our late President to write it. It will both ground the scholarship of the neophyte and delight those who have spent a lifetime in studying and rubbing brasses. Sir James Mann has compressed into thirty-two pages a mass of detailed knowledge won by personal experience; he is the greatest living authority on armour, but the reader will not find that the author's piety in this field has been given too much space. No short anthology can escape criticism, but few experts will bewail the absence of many of their favourite flowers. The book is timely, for more young men (and women) are now to be found on their knees in churches, busied with these very English monuments, than at any time since the late Victorian age.

The illustrations are clear, pleasant, and comprehensive, and they prove how casually rural are the sites of our notable brasses. Of the thirty-seven English examples chosen, only five are urban, and eighteen counties are represented. No grammatical principle is omitted, and some tenacious myths are slain. There is one tiny error of description, and the fun of finding it may be left to the eager beginner or to the erudite veteran.

R. A. U. Jennings

Dunstaffnage Castle, and the Stone of Destiny. By W. Douglas Simpson. $8\frac{3}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. vii + 136+pls. 16. Edinburgh and London: Oliver & Boyd, 1958. 18s.

This book is in two sections; the first part, occupying three-quarters of the volume, being a history and description of Dunstaffnage Castle and the second the history and transitions of the Stone of Scone.

Dunstaffnage Castle, standing on an elevated point jutting out into the bay, is 'an interesting and well preserved example—of a pattern in use during the thirteenth century throughout

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Europe—introduced into Scotland during the reign of Alexander II. The principle of such castles is that of a great curtain or enclosing wall, adjusted to the contours of the site, defended at the angles by flanking towers, and sheltering the domestic buildings of the lord and his household. One of the angle towers, forming the donjon or keep, is usually larger and stronger than the others, and capable of isolation from the rest of the castle, so that it formed a last resort or citadel, wherein resistance could be maintained even after the curtain had been mined or breached or scaled.' The geological formation and development of the site is discussed at length and the history of the castle with its stirring episodes occupies a large section of this part of the book. The chapel, standing 160 yards south-west of the castle rock, now in a ruinous state, 'has been a very beautiful structure in the purest and most fully developed First Pointed style'. By a remarkable echo from the voice of a person, even speaking in an undertone, standing behind a rock nearby, the sound seems to issue directly from the chapel. In the description of the castle the author quotes largely from Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland by MacGibbon & Ross, supplemented by his own elaboration of the details. The work is well illustrated by plans, photographs, and drawings.

In the portion of the book appropriated to the Stone of Scone the author follows in great detail the history, as far as is known, of that famous relic.

Sidney Toy

Life in Clare Hall, Cambridge, 1658-1713. By W. J. HARRISON. 9\(\frac{1}{4}\times 6\). Pp. xiv + 160. Cambridge: W. Heffer & Sons Ltd., 1958. 18s.

Samuel Blithe, Master of Clare from 1678 to 1713 (and Fellow from 1658), is one of the College's greatest benefactors. The survival of the four volumes of the accounts of his pupils from 1658 to 1694 and of the book of Fellows' accounts which he kept as Master has encouraged Mr. Harrison, formerly Bursar of the College, to use them as source-books for an account of life in

Clare Hall during this period.

They preserve a wealth of mundane detail, much of a kind that is not as a rule forthcoming in the normal run of contemporary historical material (such as private letters) and the author has taken great pains to arrange it under such headings as 'College Rooms' or 'Some Aspects of Undergraduate Life' and has included (which is unusual in such studies) an account of the College Servants. The volume's concluding chapter is an account of Blithe himself arranged in chronological semi-diary fashion. Some of this detailed material will be of interest only to Clare men, such as the identification of the occupants and their rooms on the several staircases by an ingenious analysis of the accounts (and in this connexion the charming coloured frontispiece is hardly an adequate substitute for a plan); again, items that are of a more colourful interest tend to be submerged in the mass of detail printed—such as the facts that there were no fires in the students' studies, that tuition in Hebrew (this was in 1664 and 1665) was supplied locally by 'the Jew Abendana', that one student in 1660 went to a writing-master to learn 'to write Italian and secretary exactly and to flourish', that an office open to B.A.s was that of Library Keeper with a yearly stipend of £5 and free accommodation in the Library Chamber, that a football cost 1s. and a pair of bowls 6s., that at the funeral of a student in 1660 £1. 2s. 6d. was paid 'To John Ivory the Herald painter for 13 Eschions [i.e. escutcheons]', that in 1682 the 'binding and fillitting' of 19 books cost 185, and that the prices of books included 6s. for 'Mrs. Phillips Poems', 13s. for 'Abraham Cowley's Poems', and 3s. for 'Paradise Lost'. Indeed, it might be objected of the book that, despite the care devoted to its compilation, it does not go beyond being a subject-digest of Blithe's MSS., and remains therefore a quarry for a history of the College during the period covered, rather than a history itself. On the other hand, Mr. Harrison warns us in his Preface that he 'has given a factual not an imaginative, account' and within these self-imposed limits he has performed his task C. E. WRIGHT admirably.

The mute swan in England. Its history, and the ancient custom of swan keeping. By N. F. Tice-Hurst. 12 × 9½. Pp. xiv + 136 + pls. 31. London: Cleaver-Hume Press, 1957. 35s.

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The mute swan was the subject of the greatest and most successful experiment in bird protection and aviculture ever carried out, and in this handsome and well-illustrated book we have a thorough review of the matter. The author considers that the mute swan was indigenous to Britain, and it seems to have enjoyed royal protection from the 12th century. Private owners could keep swans on private waters, and by royal licence on common waters. Supervision was carried out by commissions, the first described here was in 1314, which held swan-motes. Swan masters were appointed for general supervision throughout England, and for particular areas. Their duties were to preserve the swans and to keep a register of the marks of the different owners. These marks were recorded on Swan Rolls of which the author has discovered sixty-one, which are classified and illustrated. Forty-two swan marks are derived from their owners' armorial bearings. Mr. Ticehurst prints the grant of the mark of a ragged staff by Sir John Howard to Thomas Steward in 1436, but this is almost certainly one of the forged charters produced by Augustine Steward at the Visitation of 1575 to prove his pretended descent from the royal house of Scotland.

The book might with advantage have contained a reference to the chivalric cult of the swan at the end of the 13th century. There is a good glossary and an index of proper names. Mr. Ticchurst is to be thanked for an interesting and scholarly book.

T. D. TREMLETT

A biographical register of the University of Oxford to A.D. 1500. By A. B. EMDEN. Vol. I, A to E. $9\frac{1}{4} \times 6$. Pp. 1x + 662. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1957. £8. 8s.

The author is to be congratulated on the first of three volumes of a work which will be of the greatest value to medieval historians in several fields, and which, in particular, will be used constantly by those who are engaged in a new edition of Le Neve's Fasti. Men of diverse renown find their place among the five thousand entries—Cardinal Beaufort, Anthony Bek, Henry de Bracton, Dean Colet, Gerald de Barri, Edmund Dudley; and some there are whose only memorial is to be found in these pages. Mr. Emden has consulted not only a comprehensive number of printed sources, but a great amount of manuscript material both in Oxford itself and in many cathedral cities. Full details, almost always with documentary authority, are given of preferments in church and state; and a valuable feature is the attention given to the authorship and possession of manuscripts, and to bequests and their present location. If some of the magistri may have been at another university the doubt is usually expressed.

In a work of this kind, which is mainly biographical, one of the principal difficulties is to ensure a necessary distinction between different people bearing the same name. A leading case is the confusion made between John Mansel, Henry III's counsellor, and his kinsman master John Mansel, who will appear in a subsequent volume. Mr. Emden has examined such points with great care, and his account of mag. Richard de la Bataylle (de Bello) has an important bearing on the maker of the Hereford Mappa Mundi.

Charles Clay

Handbook on the traditional old Irish dress. By H. F. McClintock. Pp. viii+28+pls. 20. Dundalk: Dundalgan Press, 1958. 155.

Portions of the author's earlier Old Irish and Highland Dress are here condensed, slightly amended, and supplemented with a certain amount of extra material, by way of preliminary to a suggestion for the design of 'a uniform or national dress for Irish men on historic lines'. The new illustrations, from the Recueil Herbier in the Bibliothèque Nationale, are so plainly derived from the better-known Lucas de Heere drawings (which Mr. McClintock has given us already) that

they do not appreciably add to the available evidence. The present condensation is designed avowedly to present the author's design for a national Irish dress, and the ordinary student of costume will still find Mr. McClintock's earlier work—particularly in its 1950 edition—the fullest and most useful book upon the subject, since it sets forth the evidence in fuller detail than is here thought desirable for the presentation of the author's personal object. M. R. Holmes

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Antique jewellery: its history in Europe from 800 to 1900. By Erich Steingräßer. 11 × 9½. Pp. 192+341 illustrations and 8 colour pls. London: Thames & Hudson, 1957. £3. 35.

This book has already appeared in a German edition; the text has in part been revised for the English translation. As might be expected, it is particularly good on the German jewels of the Renaissance. For the first time it is possible to study the treasures of the Munich Schatzkammer in good modern plates, many of them coloured. It is no derogation to a sensible if rather pedestrian text to say that everyone interested in the subject will wish to possess the book for the sake of these plates.

Joan Evans

English church plate, 597-1830. By Charles Oman. 10\(\frac{3}{4}\times 7\). Pp. xxx+326+pls. 199. London: Oxford University Press, 1957. £6. 6s.

This important book has the advantage both of filling a conspicuous and somewhat surprising blank in the literature of its subject and of being written by a recognized authority pre-eminently qualified to accomplish the task which he has set himself. Church plate had, indeed, received some attention in the general works of Cripps, Jackson, and Watts, but there it was incidental to the consideration of English silverwork as a whole. Mr. Oman in devoting a volume to church plate takes a wider view, showing the ecclesiastical background and examining such subjects as the relation of the goldsmiths to the church and the place and function of plate in the service of the church. The story begins in the year 597, associated with the arrival of St. Augustine and his missionaries, and ends with the year 1830, stopping short of plate inspired by the nineteenth-century Gothic revival.

The book is planned in four main divisions: the Middle Ages, in two subdivisions—the period to 1300, and from 1300 to 1548; the effect of the king on church plate, whether as donor or despoiler; plate from the Reformation onwards; and finally a section on the plate of the Catholic Recusants from 1558.

The scheme of each division, except the second, is an account of the church in relation to the goldsmiths; plate in churches and in private chapels; the measures taken for security; and, lastly, the various categories of vessels and other objects, with a diligent investigation of the evidence from inventories, and a study of the evolution of forms and types, details of iconography and inscriptions, with copious and splendid illustrations in the numerous plates. Particularly valuable are the appendices with full lists and particulars of chalices, communion-cups, and patens, with descriptions of hall-marks and indications of makers. The bibliography, in addition to general works, includes literature dealing with documentary evidence, and a list of previous publications of church plate in individual counties.

The bare statement of the scheme of the book shows its indispensability; the style is lucid and readable. To the generosity of the Pilgrim Trust may be attributed the handsome format of the book and the number and quality of the illustrations.

A. B. Tonnochy

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

PROC. BRITISH ACAD., vol. 43, 1957:—Roman numismatics: miscellaneous notes, by H. Mattingly; The Natufian culture: the life and economy of a Mesolithic people in the Near East, by D. A. E. Garrod.

ANTIQUITY, vol. 32, no. 125:—Crawford and antiquity, by Sir M. Wheeler; Man and his past, by O. G. S. Crawford; Upper Palaeolithic art in Moravia, by B. Klíma; Bronze swords in South Germany, by W. A. von Brunn; Vortigern, by C. A. R. Radford; African corn fields: a review, by C. E. Stevens;

Aegean prehistory: a review, by A. J. B. Wace.
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- Nørre Fjand. An Early Iron-Age village site in West Jutland. By Gudmund Hatt, with a contribution by Holger Rasmussen. 104×8. Vol. 1. Text. Pp. 382. Vol. 2. Plates 21. København: Ejnar Munksgaard, 1957.
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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SOCIETY OF ANTIQUARIES

10th October 1957. E. Clive Rouse, F.S.A. and Dr. Audrey Baker: "The Wall-paintings at Stoke Orchard".

17th October 1957. Sir James Mann, Hon. V-P.S.A.: 'A Sallet connected with the Irby family in Whaplode Church'; and P. K. Baillie Reynolds, F.S.A. and Mr. W. Palmer: 'The Wall-paintings in the Byward Tower, Tower of London'.

24th October 1957. Miss M. Bimson and Mr. John Belshé: "The Wattisfield Kiln Experiment'.

31st October 1957. John Bradford, F.S.A.: 'Discoveries in Italy, 1956-7: Pre-classical and Classical Sites'.

7th November 1957. Professor Stuart Piggott, V-P.S.A.: 'Stonehenge: the Third Monument and its implications'.

14th November 1957. C. Thurstan Shaw, F.S.A.: 'An Excavation in Ghana'.

28th November 1957. Mr. D. M. Wilson and C. Blunt, F.S.A.: 'The Trewhiddle Hoard'.

5th December 1957. W. A. Pantin, F.S.A.: 'Medieval Inns'.

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12th December 1957. Dr. L. de Paor: 'Irish Romanesque Art'.

19th December 1957. Dr. F. Henry, F.S.A. and Dr. G. Zarnecki, F.S.A.: 'Romanesque Arches decorated with Human and Animal Heads'.

9th January 1958. Mr. C. S. Chettoe, Mr. R. J. Sherlock, Professor W. E. S. Turner, Mr. C. M. J. Coote, Miss A. S. Robertson, Lt.-Col. C. G. Botha, Rev. Canon J. L. Cartwright, Miss M. G. Simpson, Miss M. W. Baldwin, Mr. A. Warhurst, Dr. P. Phillips, Dr. A. E. A. Werner, Miss J. G. D. Scott, Dr. E. A. O. Whiteman, Mr. J. P. W. Ehrman, Mr. R. H. Pinder-Wilson, Mr. W. E. Godfrey, Mr. W. Y. Carman, and Dr. H. H. Scullard were elected Fellows.

16th January 1958. Dr. K. P. Oakley, F.S.A.: 'Archaeology and Evolution'.

23rd January 1958. Dr. W. Douglas Simpson, F.S.A.: 'The "Laager" type of castle in the later Middle Ages'.

30th January 1958. Mr. G. de G. Sieveking: 'Recent Archaeology in Malaya'.

6th February 1958. Mr. F. R. Hodson: 'Recent Work on the Early Celts in Southern France'.
13th February 1958. Mr. B. W. Spencer: 'Medieval Pilgrim Badges'.

20th February 1958. Dr. P. M. G. Eden, F.S.A.; 'Some parish church types, 1272-1377'. 27th February 1958. Mr. Nicholas Thomas: 'The Barrows on Snail Down, Everleigh'.

6th March 1958. Extraordinary Meeting. The following alteration to the Statutes (1954), proposed by Council, was unanimously approved: Cap. I, Section i, p. 13, for 'one thousand', read 'twelve hundred'.

6th March 1958. Mr. A. G. Woodhead, Mr. G. V. D. Rybot, Mr. R. T. Mason, Mr. D. H. Boalch, Mr. J. G. Hurst, Mr. R. S. Simms, Mr. J. Boyle, Mr. E. C. Hohler, Miss M. Bimson, Dr. J. H. Plumb, Mr. G. P. B. Naish, Mr. I. P. Collis, Mr. F. H. Simpson, Mr. B. W. Spencer, Mr. N. de l'E. W. Thomas, and Mr. R. N. Quirk were elected Fellows.

13th March 1958. Mons. Jean Porcher, Hon. F.S.A.: 'Recherches sur l'initiale ornée dans les manuscrits du Haut Moyen Âge'.

20th March 1958. S. S. Frere, F.S.A.: 'Verulamium, 1957'.

27th March 1958. Lord William Taylour: 'An Unplundered Tholos at Pylos'.

17th April 1958. Mr. Paul Ashbee: 'Fussell's Lodge long barrow'.

Anniversary Meeting 23rd April 1958, St. George's Day. The following report of the Council for the year 1957-8 was read:

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Research.—Excavations at Verulamium were continued under the direction of Mr. S. S. Frere. F.S.A.; a Third Interim Report will be included in the next number of the Antiquaries Journal. Mr. C. A. R. Radford, Vice-President, is to conduct trial excavations on behalf of the Society

Mr. C. A. R. Radford, Vice-President, is to conduct trial excavations on behalf of the Society at the west end of the site of the abbey church at Bury St. Edmunds, before the building of the proposed cathedral is begun, to see if there are remains of Baldwins Basilica, c. 1080–1140.

Grants from the Research Fund have been made to: the Verulamium Excavation Committee; the excavations at Bury St. Edmunds; the Expedition under Professor Hawkes to investigate Iron Age castros in Northern Portugal; for the promontory fort at Dinas Powis (Glam.); for the Roman villa at Great Casterton (Rutland); to the Camerton Excavation Club, for the Roman mausoleum at Nettleton (Wilts.); and for the excavation of the thirteenth-century tilery at Meaux Abbey (E. Yorks.).

Publication.—Research Report No. XIX (Hill-Forts of Northern France, by Sir Mortimer Wheeler and Miss K. M. Richardson) was published in 1957. Research Report No. XX (Roman Colchester, by M. R. Hull) is in the press, and will be published jointly with the Corporation of Colchester later in the year. The Coptos sheet in the Tabula Imperii Romani series, compiled by Dr. David Meredith, is to be issued shortly with the generous aid of subscriptions from numerous colleges and universities.

The Council of the Walpole Society has offered to issue the Catalogue of the Society's Pictures compiled by Dr. Pamela Tudor-Craig as one of their publications, and negotiations to that end have been entered into.

Croft Lyons Fund.—The editorial work on the Dictionary of British Arms has continued, and the Committee has greatly benefited from the increased amount of time that has been devoted to the work by Mr. T. D. Tremlett, F.S.A., and several voluntary helpers.

Morris Fund.—Grants have been made for the repair of churches at: Hinton Waldrist (Berks.), Coleridge (Devon), St. Helen's, Auckland and Whitburn (Durham), Deerhurst (Glos.), Garway (Hereford.), Grimoldby (Lincs.), Cogenhoe (Northants), Sparsholt (Oxon.), Limington (Som.), Stoke-next-Guildford (Surrey); Dinton and Stratford-sub-Castle (Wilts.), Cotheridge and Pirton (Worcs.), and for the alabaster figures at Heytesbury (Wilts.), and the market cross at Stalbridge (Dorset).

Library.—A gift was received from an anonymous Fellow, in the form of a seven-year covenant for £50 gross, for the purpose of buying books of the more expensive kind for the Library.

Measurements were made of the total free space remaining on the shelves, and of the wall-space in the basement where further shelving could be installed. Based on the average yearly intake of books and periodicals, it was estimated that there was room on the existing shelves for fifteen years' growth, and that there would be room for a further fifteen years' expansion if new shelving were erected wherever possible in the basement.

Some 200 books and 330 periodicals were received during the year. These included 88 books (value £269) sent for review. Some 940 books and periodicals were borrowed by Fellows, and 18 by the National Central Library. During the year, 256 volumes were sent out to be bound, and some 300 volumes were repaired and strengthened in the Library.

General.—Regular meetings have been held throughout the session. Some further subscriptions have been received for the Research Fund; and the Bicentenary Fund has received from an anonymous donor a promise of securities amounting to about £1,000.

A Fellow, who wishes to remain anonymous, has offered to enter into a seven-year covenant for £50 gross per annum for the General Fund of the Society, if five other Fellows are prepared to do likewise.

On 6th March the Statutes were amended so as to raise the maximum number of Fellows from 1,000 to 1,200.

Council has again reviewed the method of election of Fellows by ballot, and, while of the opinion that the present system should be maintained, has agreed that, as an experiment, the first eight signatories to any candidate's certificate should be permitted to record their vote by post, if unable to attend a ballot in person.

At the request of the Ministry of Works, Council has reviewed the accommodation of the Society's apartments in Burlington House, and proposals have been made to the Ministry for increasing Library shelf-space, and the provision of enlarged meeting room facilities.

Notice has been received from the Board of Inland Revenue refusing the Society's claim for repayment of Income Tax on the covenanted subscriptions of Fellows. Council has appealed against this decision to the Special Commissioners.

The following gifts, other than printed books, have been received from:

Rev. T. D. S. Bayley, F.S.A.:

The Legends of the Creation and the fall of man, by James Mew and John Ashton. Part 1 of an unpublished work, illustrated with tracings from medieval woodcuts.

Spanish Street Ballads. Trans. by James Mew, and illustrated by John Ashton.

Rev. L. J. Birch:

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White metal medal, c. 1840, of C. Linnaeus.

Capt. H. T. A. Bosanquet, F.S.A.:

Gedi, the lost city (typescript) with charts, photographs, &c.

Dr. Hertha Marquardt:

Bibliographie der Runeninschriften nach Fundorten (typescript).

J. C. Page-Phillips:

Rubbings of a palimpsest brass of Wm. Coke (1553) from Milton, Cambs., and of Reverses of brass of Sir Robt. Nedeham, Adderley, Shropshire.

The late Edward Yates, F.S.A.:

Collection of prints, drawings, and newspaper-cuttings, chiefly of castles in Kent.

Obituary: The following Fellows have died since the last Anniversary:

Honorary Fellows

Dr. René Dussaud, 17th March 1958.

Professor Paul Jacobsthal, 21st October 1957.

Ordinary Fellows

Frank Addison, 18th March 1958.

George Augustus Auden, M.D., M.A., Ph.D., D.P.H., F.R.C.P., 3rd May 1957.

William Henry Randoll Blacking, F.R.I.B.A., 24th January 1958.

James Eustace Broad, 14th April 1957.

Hugh Edmund Chafy, December 1957.

Duncan Walter Clark, F.R.I.B.A., 6th March 1958.

The Very Reverend David Herbert Somerset Cranage, Litt.D., B.D., Hon. A.R.I.B.A., 22nd October 1957.

The Hon. Marjorie Cross, 4th February 1958.

William Hugh Curtis, 4th December 1957. Major John McClean Griffin, January 1957.

Arthur Mayger Hind, O.B.E., M.A., LL.D., 22nd May 1957.

John Joyce Keevil, D.S.O., M.D., B.Ch., 16th December 1957.

Malcolm Henry Ikin Letts, 27th June 1957.
Col. Sydney Manvers Woolner Meadows, D.S.O., 6th November 1957.
Wilfred Merton, 2nd November 1957.
The Rev. Miles Weight Myres, D.D., May 1957.
Thomas Overbury, F.R.I.B.A., 27th April 1957.
Charles William Dyson Perrins, D.C.L., J.P., 29th January 1958.
Cecil Harold Ridge, 6th May 1957.
The Rev. Canon Thomas Romans, M.A., 3rd January 1958.
John Frederic Smerdon Stone, B.A., D.Phil., 12th May 1957.
John Archibald Venn, C.M.G., Litt.D., 15th March 1958.
Alan John Bayard Wace, M.A., Litt.D., LL.D., F.B.A., 9th November 1957.
John Beach Whitmore, B.A., 4th October 1957.
John Bancroft Willans, 11th April 1957.
Edward Yates, 26th October 1957.

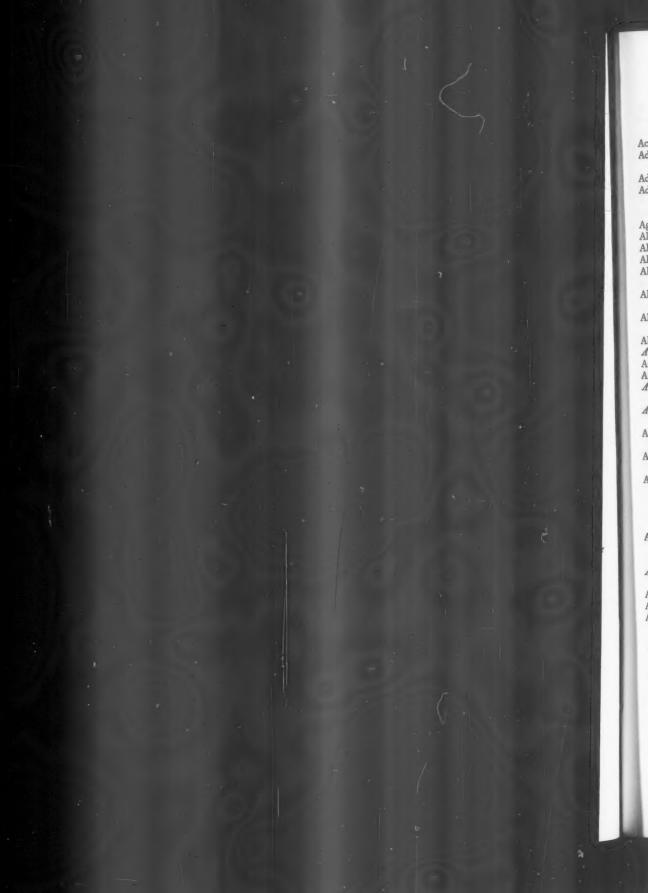
The following were elected officers and members of Council for the ensuing year: Sir Mortimer Wheeler, President; Mr. H. L. Bradfer-Lawrence, Treasurer; Dr. Joan Evans, Director; Mr. A. R. Dufty, Secretary; Mrs. O. P. F. Brogan, Dr. G. H. S. Bushnell, Miss B. de Cardi, Rev. J. C. Dickinson, Mr. M. F. B. Fitch, Professor I. Ll. Foster, Mr. J. R. C. Hamilton, Dr. K. M. Kenyon, Professor M. McKisack, General Sir James Marshall-Cornwall, Dr. J. N. L. Myres, Lord Nathan, Dr. N. B. L. Pevsner, Professor S. Piggott, Professor I. A. Richmond, Professor D. Whitelock, Professor F. Wormald.

The President then delivered his Anniversary Address (pp. 165-73), at the conclusion of which he presented the Society's Gold Medal to Dr. Claude F. A. Schaeffer, Hon. F.S.A.

rst May 1958. Mr. E. S. Wood, Lord William Taylour, Dr. P. Tudor-Craig, Mr. P. Ashbee, Mrs. E. S. Eames, Mr. W. Salisbury, Miss M. A. Smith, Dr. J. X. W. P. Corcoran, Mr. J. F. H. Checkley, Mr. E. G. Holt, Mr. P. J. Tester, Mr. J. E. Bartlett, Mr. H. C. Bowen, Mr. H. J. M. Petty, Dr. B. Swinbank, Mr. D. T. Piper, Mlle S. Cassou de St. Mathurin, Miss I. Scouloudi, Mr. J. G. O'Leary, and Mrs. D. H. Woolner were elected Fellows. The President announced that he had appointed Dr. Kathleen Mary Kenyon to be a Vice-President.

8th May 1958. Dr. Olaf Olsen: "The Oldest Churches of Denmark: a Report on Recent Excavations".

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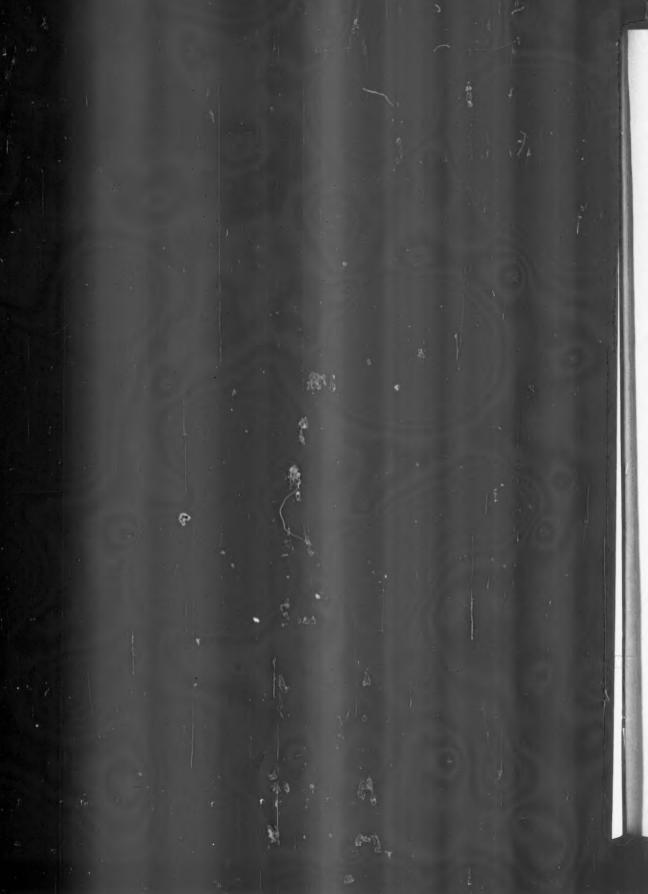
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